Spring 5-11-2018

LEARNING TO LOVE MACHIAVELLI: BEST PRACTICES IN TEACHING PRIMARY SOURCE DOCUMENTS TO STRUGGLING SECONDARY READERS OF WORLD HISTORY

Lindsey A. Fisher

ACCEPTANCE

This dissertation, LEARNING TO LOVE MACHIAVELLI: BEST PRACTICES IN TEACHING PRIMARY SOURCE DOCUMENTS TO STRUGGLING SECONDARY READERS OF WORLD HISTORY, by LINDSEY ANNE FISHER, was prepared under the direction of the Dr. Chara H. Bohan. It is accepted by the committee members in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree, Doctor of Philosophy, in the College of Education, Georgia State University.

The Dissertation Advisory Committee and the student's Department Chairperson, as representatives of the faculty, certify that this dissertation has met all standards of excellence and scholarship as determined by the faculty.

_____
Chara Bohan, Ph.D.
Committee Chair

_____
Alyssa Hadley Dunn, Ph.D.
Committee Member

_____
Yali Zhao, Ph.D.
Commitee Member

_____
Joseph Feinberg, Ph.D.
Committee Member

_____
Date

_____
Gertrude Tinker Sachs, Ph.D.
Chairperson, Department of Middle and Secondary Education

_____
Paul D. Alberto, Ph.D.
Dean
College of Education and Human Development

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Lindsey Anne Fisher

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Lindsey Anne Fisher
Middle and Secondary Education
College of Education
Georgia State University

The director of this dissertation is:

Dr. Chara Haeussler Bohan
Department of Middle and Secondary Education
College of Education
Georgia State University
Atlanta, GA 30303

CURRICULUM VITAE

LINDSEY A. FISHER

30 Pryor St. SE
Atlanta, GA 30303
lcafarella1@student.gsu.edu

FORMERLY LINDSEY CAFARELLA

EDUCATION

Georgia State University, Atlanta, GA
Ph. D in Teaching and Learning: Social Studies Education **2010-2018**
Completed All But Dissertation, Estimated Dissertation Completion Date: May 2018

University of Georgia, Athens, GA
M.Ed in Social Science Education **2007**

University of Georgia, Athens, GA
B.A. in History **2004**
Thesis: Evidence of Paternalism in Vietnam War Films

University of Georgia, Athens, GA
B.A. in Advertising **2004**

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

McLean High School, McLean, VA: World History Teacher **2015-Present**

Cesar Chavez Public Charter School for Public Policy, Washington, DC: World History Teacher **2014-2015**

Peachtree Ridge High School, Suwanee, GA: World History Teacher **2006-2014**

SCHOLARSHIP

Awards

Teacher of the Year Runner Up, *George Washington's Mount Vernon* 2017
Teacher of the Year Finalist, *Gwinnett County Public Schools* 2011-2012
Teacher of the Year, *Peachtree Ridge High School* 2011-2012
Korea Society Summer Fellowship, *Korea Society* 2013
National Consortium for Teaching About Asia Study Tour, *Columbia University* 2010

Professional Conference Presentations

Fisher, L. (2015, Aug.) *What's In A Name?* Presentation at the Fairfax County Public Schools Pre-Service Professional Development for Social Studies Teachers, Alexandria, VA.

Fisher, L. & Manoatl, C. (2016, Feb.) *Google Classroom*. Presentation at the Fairfax County Public Schools AAP Winter Institute, Fairfax, VA.

Cafarella, L. & Clendenen, J. (2013, Oct.). *Simple Lessons, Big Results!* Presentation at the Georgia Council for Social Studies Conference, Athens, GA.

Cafarella, L. (2012, Nov.) *Dynamic history lessons using the Common Core*. Presentation at the National Council for Social Studies Conference, Seattle, WA.

Cafarella, L. (2011, Dec.). *Reading made easy: Literacy strategies for high school history.* Presentation at the National Council for Social Studies Conference, Washington, D.C.

Cafarella, L. & Clendenen, J. (2011, Oct.). *Vocabulary strategies for high school history.* Presentation at the Georgia Council for Social Studies Conference, Athens, GA.

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Articles Published

Cafarella, L., and Bohan, C. (2012). The top five narratives for teaching about China's Cultural Revolution. *Social Education, 76 (3),* pp.121-125

LEARNING TO LOVE MACHIAVELLI: BEST PRACTICES IN TEACHING PRIMARY SOURCE DOCUMENTS TO STRUGGLING SECONDARY READERS OF WORLD HISTORY

by

LINDSEY ANNE FISHER

Under the Direction of Dr. Chara Haeussler Bohan

ABSTRACT

World History classes are a required part of the social studies curriculum in nearly every state in America. Furthermore, use of primary sources in history classrooms as part of historical thinking skills are being integrated into the curricula of many districts and states across the country, in large part due to the Common Core State Standards and changes made in the Advanced Placement history curriculum. However, many students still require basic reading skills and struggle with understanding grade-level texts, let alone documents written thousands of miles away, hundreds of years ago in another language.

As a researcher, I sought to understand how successful teachers of struggling readers use primary sources to teach World History in the secondary classroom and fill a gap in the literature regarding the use of primary source documents with struggling readers of World History. While much literature exists about primary sources, about United States history, and about readers in

general, very little exists about struggling readers in the World History classroom. A case study was conducted with two teachers of World History in a school with a majority of students identified as struggling readers to evaluate how successful teachers use primary source documents to teach World History to struggling readers. I found that these teachers used a consistent lesson plan that began with use of visuals to engage students, introduced content relevant to the sources, modeled effective reading and historical thinking strategies, and provided students time to practice the strategies modeled. These teachers also used culturally relevant pedagogy and care ethics in framing their pedagogy.

INDEX WORDS: World History, Content Area Literacy, Historical Thinking Skills, Struggling Readers

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LINDSEY ANNE FISHER

A Dissertation

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of Requirements for the

Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

in

TEACHING AND LEARING: SOCIAL STUDIES

in

MIDDLE AND SECONDARY EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

in the

College of Education

Georgia State University

Atlanta, GA

2018

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Completion of this dissertation would not have been possible without the guidance and support of my committee members and colleagues. Dr. Chara Bohan, thank you for the support personally and professionally as you have guided me through this long journey. You always kept faith in me and reminded me to persevere, even when I was not sure I could. I am forever grateful for our time working together. Dr. Joseph Feinberg, thank you for believing in me at the beginning of my doctoral program and throughout. Your warmth, professional guidance, and flexibility helped me to build confidence that I needed to continue on. Dr. Alyssa Dunn, I am inspired by your commitment to your research and your beliefs. The impact you have on your students is tangible and deep, and I hope to one day have that same effect. Dr. Yali Zhao, thank you for taking a chance on me and helping me to cross these last hurdles. This dissertation would also have not been possible without Katherine Perrotta, whose guidance throughout the prospectus at all hours of the day carried me through to the end.

Matthew Bower and Dr. Jayme Holaway Hicks provided vital support throughout the more challenging parts of my dissertation. Matthew encouraged me to persevere through the difficult days of writing, research, and IRB approval. Dr. Hicks was my sounding board, listening with an open mind and providing sound professional guidance and personal support.

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1. INTRODUCTION

For three years, I taught a group of sophomore World History students requiring extra instruction in reading and writing. My school eloquently titled this class AMO, standing for "Annual Measurable Objective." These were the students whom the administration predicted would stand in the way of our school reaching the Adequate Yearly Progress benchmark. Because my school was on a block schedule in which students receive a full year of instruction in 18 weeks with over 90 minutes in each classroom every day, we placed these struggling readers in a combined World History and World Literature course that lasted the full school year rather than just one semester. Our administration surmised that with sustained work over the course of a year with both a language arts teacher and a history teacher, rather than a semester with separate instructors, these students would better be able to learn the literacy skills and content knowledge they needed to move forward. My task as the World History teacher was to prepare these children for the Gateway exam, an essay test based on analysis of primary source documents.

I ordinarily taught the entire history of the world, from Plato to NATO, in one semester. Because I often had a special education teacher present in the classroom to provide extra support, I did not think that this new course would be particularly different. By the second day of the school year, I found that I was completely mistaken. The teacher for the language arts component of the course gave the students a test to gauge their reading level, and I was shocked to learn that of the 50 sophomores we taught, the average reading level was just above 4th grade. How could I help these students to understand primary source documents, some translated from foreign languages, some thousands of years old, when these high school students were only reading at an elementary level?

At the same time, I chose to take a professional development course through my school district designed to provide teachers with instructional tools for building content-area literacy. This teacher-led professional development course, taking place over two Saturday mornings a month, was designed to help teachers of all content areas learn how to better incorporate reading, writing, and metacognitive strategies into their daily lessons without sacrificing content. The value of this professional development course became apparent almost immediately, as I learned instructional strategies that helped my AMO students to deconstruct difficult texts, organize their thoughts, understand what they had read, and analyze the meaning of the text.

Purpose Statement

All readers should be exposed to difficult text and taught to work their way through it in order to be better prepared to participate actively in a democratic society. I have chosen my study on teaching the reading of primary source documents in World History to struggling secondary readers in for this reason. According to Tatum (2012), "high school students need and benefit from a wide range of texts that challenge them to contextualize and examine their in-school and out-of-school lives." Struggling readers are fully capable of reading difficult texts and will need to read them as adulthood progresses, as all readers, struggling or fluent, must be taught how to make meaning of difficult texts to participate in the workforce, voting, and navigation of complicated bureaucratic decisions such as healthcare.

Primary source documents in World History classes are among the most difficult sources for any reader to comprehend. These documents are often translated from foreign languages, reference time periods hundreds or even thousands of years ago, and describe a place in which many students are unfamiliar. A student who holds the tools to make meaning of a World History primary source could feasibly make meaning from a huge variety of other texts. Holding

this skill set is empowering, as it allows students to participate capably in a democratic society through reading and understanding difficult materials.

Why Machiavelli?

By the end of the first semester, my AMO students were able to read excerpts from Machiavelli, explain his ideas, and justify their opinions of his ideas using evidence from both history and their own lives. To unlock Machiavelli's meaning, we regularly utilized before reading, during reading, and after reading strategies to help students develop an understanding of and strategies for reading difficult texts. Much of the literature designed to help educators create lessons for struggling readers begins with a focus on what strategies proficient readers use while reading (Alvermann, Gillis, & Phelps 2013, Harvey & Goudevis 2007, Gallagher 2004, Tovani & Moje 2017, Daniels & Zemelman 2004). While the strategies used by proficient readers are often unconscious and used in an interchangeable manner, rather than the linear manner in which I conducted the lesson, struggling readers first need these strategies to be modeled so that they are easily accessible and clearly understood. According to Daniels & Zemelman (2004), before reading strategies generally consist of activation of prior knowledge and previewing the material so that readers have an understanding and a purpose for what they are reading. During reading strategies provide the reader with tools to make sense of their reading as they read it and can be as simple as annotation or as complex as creating elaborate mind maps, drawings, and codes. After reading strategies help students to reflect on what they have read, share it with others, and integrate their own ideas about the reading with outside knowledge or ideas (Daniels & Zemelman, 2004).

This excerpt from Machiavelli's *The Prince* was the most challenging reading I presented my students, and while the lesson was certainly not without struggle, it was also the most

rewarding and engaging reading we did all year. My before reading strategy was a personality quiz titled "How Machiavellian Are You?" and gave a list of ten statements for them to either agree or disagree with, such as "Most people are extremely selfish." After students decided their responses to the ten statements, I provided them a way to score their personality quizzes to reflect how Machiavellian they were on a scale from zero to twenty. The students were then asked to stand in a spectrum based on their score, with zero standing on the left up to twenty standing on the right, and we discussed how their scores reflected their views about power, authority, and the inherent goodness of mankind. Students began to debate their thoughts, which piqued their interest in the difficult reading that they would soon encounter.

The during reading strategy while students read Machiavelli was twofold. First, I needed to model how to read and annotate difficult text, so I projected the reading and showed them how I would break down different parts of the sentence to make meaning, circle difficult terms, and annotate my thoughts and questions to the side of the text. I then divided students into pairs and gave each pair a copy of the excerpt they were to read with a large sheet of colored paper behind it. Students were to silently annotate as I had modeled, but since they had a partner who was also annotating on the same paper, they could use their partner's annotations, questions, and comments to collaborate in creating meaning from the text as they read. After about 8 minutes, each pair would switch papers, reread the excerpt, and continue to annotate, ask questions, and comment on each others' annotations. Gallagher (2004) describes rereading as "second-draft reading," allowing the reader to develop a more refined comprehension of the material (p. 80). With a complex text derived from a translation of 16th century Italian, a second reading was necessary for students to be able to make meaning from it. Students would pass along their

paper a second time, reading the excerpt a total of three times and gaining insight from five other students in the class.

After reading, I began our discussion by asking students which parts of the text they still did not understand. We discussed difficult vocabulary, what that vocabulary meant, and what parts they were still able to make meaning of despite the complex wording. I then asked students to explain what they thought Machiavelli was saying, which led to a discussion of whether students agreed with Machiavelli's view of leadership, examples and non-examples of Machiavellian leadership, and whether a Machiavellian society was appropriate in today's world. Students surprised me with their passion within the debate as well as the examples supporting their beliefs, which ranged from leaders we studied in class such as Qin Shi Huangdi to teachers to current world leaders. After an impassioned debate between my students, students then wrote a letter to a major world leader of their choice describing what Machiavelli thought a good leader should do, what the student thought a good leader should do, and a historical or contemporary example that supported the student's beliefs on leadership. The letters were largely articulate expressions of Machiavelli's ideas and the students' own world views. At the end of the school year, when students were asked to describe what they felt they would take from the class to apply to other classes, many students described the annotation strategies and the ideas of Machiavelli taught in that lesson. I wondered, if students who read at a 4th grade level could develop such a connection with the ideas of a 14th century Italian philosopher, what other types of documents and ideas could they learn to read and analyze? What tools could teachers give these struggling students so that they could dissect and examine any text they chose?

As I experienced great success with the AMO students through the Machiavelli lesson and several others using primary source documents, I began to speak with other World History

teachers about the strategies they used with reading and with primary source documents. Jewett and Ackerman (2013) found that roughly two thirds of social studies teachers use primary source documents two to three times a month. It quickly became clear that while teachers were interested in helping students to read and analyze all texts, they either lacked the tools or the time to do so (Passe & Fitchett, 2013, Cornbleth, 2001). After one year of AMO, I found that teaching struggling readers to understand World History is a topic significantly lacking in research and practical applications. While there is much literature on the needs of content-area teachers, as I will discuss in the literature review, the literature regarding teaching primary source documents to struggling readers in the World History course is scant for reasons difficult to discern.

Many books written to provide practical strategies for secondary content-area teachers begin with a similar story (Daniels & Zemelman 2004, Tovani 2000, Ogle, Klemp, & McBride 2007, Harvey & Goudvis 2007, Gallagher 2003, Lesh, 2011, Tovani & Moje 2017). A teacher walks into class and tells students to take out their textbooks. The students hoist their heavy textbooks onto their desks. The teacher either asks the students to read a chapter or recap the previous night's reading assignment. The students sit quietly, staring blankly, not participating in either the reading or the discussion. The teacher becomes upset and begins to ask herself questions such as, "Why are the students not reading? Is it because they do not care? Is it because they cannot read? Should I teach reading? Even if I knew how to teach reading, when would I do it?" These stories are sometimes theoretical and sometimes based on actual teachers, but the point is clear: content area teachers lack both time and resources to teach secondary readers how to access the content in their readings (Perrotta & Bohan, 2013).

At a secondary level, content area teachers truly need to be content area specialists. A depth and breadth of content knowledge and understanding is essential to developing effective curriculum in any topic regardless of student reading level. Because high school curriculum and examinations often requires a significant amount of content knowledge, teachers feel pressured to move through content quickly, and teachers often become more concerned with content knowledge than with content literacy. While the content knowledge and content literacy are not mutually exclusive, they are certainly different concepts. Content knowledge includes both prior knowledge of the topic and the facts, ideas, and concepts to be learned. Content literacy is that ability to negotiate with texts in a way that helps make sense of the content (Alvermann, Gillis, & Phelps, 2013).

Because teachers are often evaluated on their teaching of a vast amount of content knowledge, the content is usually taught quickly and superficially. Teachers are left with little time to make connections that could improve engagement or for content-area reading strategies that could further a students' understanding of the content. Even as far back as 1988, Newmann bemoaned the "addiction to coverage" in content area classrooms, claiming "the press for broad coverage causes many teachers to feel inadequate about leaving out so much content and apologetically mindful of the fact that much of what they teach is not fully understood by their students" (p. 346). Three decades later, there is still little instructional time to spend working with students who struggle with reading the material, even when these students could be capable of understanding the reading with support.

What many teachers fail to recognize or are unable to combat is the connection between content knowledge and content literacy. The more knowledge a student has in advance of reading, the more they can apply that knowledge to their reading and the more knowledge they

can acquire from said reading. In order to access that knowledge, students must understand how to use reading strategies to learn new content. Teachers may understand that students struggle with reading or that students simply are not reading, but because of both a lack of expertise and a lack of time, the tools to improve students' ability to read in the content areas are often underutilized.

Content area teachers often expect for those content reading and learning strategies to have been learned previously or independently, but because the nature of the texts used in each content area is vastly different, students have usually not been exposed to the specific needs of each type of text (Alvermann, Gillis, & Phelps, 2013). Once students reach the secondary level, texts become entirely more complex and specific to certain content areas. The reading skills required to understand a lab report for a science class are entirely different than the reading skills required to understand Thomas Paine's *Common Sense*. Even textbooks among different content areas are formatted differently and contain different expectations for learning (Daniels & Zemelman, 2004). Finally, as students move through high school, the vocabulary for each content area grows increasingly more content-specific, requiring students to recall and understand a large variety of words and concepts. Because the amount of information and vocabulary for each content area is so large, students have difficulty discerning what to focus on and what to retain (Daniels & Zemelman, 2004, Ogle, Klemp, & McBride 2007).

Social studies courses come with their own specific obstacles for struggling readers to overcome. In some cases, students may bring no content knowledge to the course, as is often the case when studying ancient or foreign cultures (VanSledright 2006, Haruni 2009, Wineburg & McGrew 2016). The cyclical nature of content knowledge and content literacy cannot begin without even a small understanding of the original concept. To that end, social studies classes

contain a large variety of difficult and abstract concepts, such as religions, philosophies, governments, and economics. These concepts are difficult to understand on their own, making reading about them considerably more difficult (Ogle, Klemp, & McBride, 2007).

A consideration of social studies reading applies particularly to struggling readers, as many of them are students from traditionally marginalized populations. Cook (2015) found that reading scores throughout schooling were significantly higher for white students than for blacks in a review of National Council for Educational Statistics data. If the applicability of learning to a students' daily life is a factor in engagement, then many minority students may not feel engaged in social studies courses. Traditional textbooks and curricula often emphasize notable heroic individuals and major events, largely ignoring the achievements of the common man and traditionally marginalized populations. McBride (2007) explains the phenomena: "Within some texts, minority students may see their cultures described only in negative ways, such as African Americans pictured only as slaves with no mention of the rich African culture that they possessed when they arrived in America" (p. 6).

Faced with these challenges of incorporating social studies content and literacy into a content-heavy curriculum, there are many strategies a social studies teacher can employ. First and most simply, students have to read and read often. As McBride (2007) argues, "Only by reading regularly will struggling students develop fluency with the content, vocabulary, and style of academic writing" (p. 27). While this is a simplistic answer, shying away from the literacy problem by giving lectures or asking students to memorize may help a teacher to teach the content in a more expedient manner, but the students will be just as far behind as they were when they started the class. Providing students with frequent opportunities to read also helps struggling readers to better understand and adopt new vocabulary specific to social studies, particularly

when multiple texts on a similar topic are given. While it may be problematic for those teachers using state standards where breadth is more celebrated than depth, McBride as well as Daniels and Zemelman (2004) argue that teachers "should go deeper into a smaller number of topics" (p. 54), meaning that deeper reading occurs when students can get more in depth into the content of what they are expected to read and understand. Daniels and Zemelman described the case of one high school social studies department which chose 16 vital elements of American history on which the department would focus, rather than teaching every detail of their assigned standards. The social studies department found that such a change allowed their students to have a better grasp of those most important concepts while building skills inherent to reading and understanding history.

The importance of reading in social studies education is acknowledged by educators and those making educational policy; moreover, the ability to develop citizens who verify the sources of information around them, critically read and evaluate the quality of arguments, and consider the viewpoints of others has never been greater than it is today. The election of 2016 brought about a significant amount of questioning regarding the validity of mass media, leading to the term "fake news" as a buzzword to describe the creation of myriad websites and news vehicles publishing one-sided news articles designed to be distributed via social media (Wineburg & McGrew, 2016). This fragmentation resulted in a vitriolic, deeply partisan political climate flooded with factually incorrect propaganda disseminated by friends and family and often accepted without question. As President Obama (2017) said in his Farewell Address,

> For too many of us, it's become safer to retreat into our own bubbles…surrounded by people who look like us and share the same political outlook and never challenge our assumptions…And increasingly, we become so secure in our bubbles that we accept only

> information, whether true or not, that fits our opinions, instead of basing our opinions on the evidence that's out there. This trend represents a…threat to our democracy…without some common baseline of facts; without a willingness to admit new information, and concede that your opponent is making a fair point, and that science and reason matter, we'll keep talking past each other, making common ground and compromise impossible.

President Obama is precisely referring to what a skilled reader of primary source documents can do, and his prediction of citizens being unable to reconcile others opinions is indeed frightening, regardless of political viewpoint. The tense political climate today makes the skills necessary to become a critical reader of primary source documents so important. A skilled reader of primary source documents can evaluate sources and understand how the circumstances surrounding a document's creation impact its content. A skilled reader of primary source documents can consider alternate viewpoints and question others' perspectives. A skilled reader of primary source documents uses outside evidence to corroborate the information in a document. All of these skills are important for every citizen to have in America in 2018.

The Stanford History Education Group (SHEG) published a study written by Wineburg and McGrew in 2016 in which they evaluated students' civic online reasoning—that is, their ability to discern the credibility of online sources. Their study spanned 12 states and nearly 8,000 students across middle school, high school, and college (including Stanford University). Upon the conclusion of their 18 months of research, Wineburg and McGrew (2016) had one word to describe their findings: "bleak." Middle schoolers generally found sponsored content and advertisements to be legitimate news stories, and even college students did not detect bias in tweets by political action groups. Students and adults are flooded with new primary source documents every day, yet according to the report by SHEG, many people have trouble discerning

legitimacy of sources and often rarely consider fact checking the sources at all. For struggling readers especially, the need for explicit instruction in understanding primary source documents is crucial to participating in democracy today.

While understanding primary source documents is important, struggling readers often need explicit instruction to understand much of what they read. Many students can read fluently once they get to the secondary level but often struggle to understand what they have read for a variety of reasons. As of May 2016, about 60% of eighth grade and of twelfth grade high school students required some form of remediation to help them understand the words that they read (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2016). Students in advanced classes can sometimes require this type of remediation, as Wineburg (2001) has written about in his studies of advanced level high school students in American history classes. According to the National Center for Educational Statistics (2011), about 22% of American adults have minimal literacy skills. These challenges are particularly pronounced for students of color; only 16% of African-American high school seniors and 20% of Hispanic high school seniors scored proficient on a national reading test in 2005, although the average for Caucasians was also low at 43%.

Beyond concerns of media literacy in an era of "fake news," adults who are only functionally literate are more likely to be homeless and hold low paying jobs. Conversely, increases in literacy lead to increased community participation, completed education, and higher self-esteem. How can secondary world history teachers teach for historical literacy with students who are only functionally literate?

While increasing focus on reading, writing, and math in standardized testing have pushed social studies to a back burner in elementary schools, many teachers try to bridge the gap by using social studies-related materials. Once students reach the secondary level, many students

can read fluently but often struggle to understand what they have read for a variety of reasons. Despite strong efforts in language arts-related fields, research has shown that literacy is content-specific, and increasing amounts of literature have been produced over the past 20 years to show that literacy in the social studies differs from literacy in other content areas. Because social studies includes such a large variety of topics, from geography to biography to chronology and beyond, a reading in social studies usually includes multiple text structures, and for a struggling reader, it can often be hard to process so many different types of information (Beck & McKeown, 1989).

Most of the literature on the teaching of primary sources focuses on American History. Data on exactly how many states require a World History course to graduate high school is difficult to gather given that many states allow graduation requirements to be determined locally. Mead (2006) determined that every state has set World History standards (State of the State World History Standards), yet little research has been done on the use of primary source documents in the World History course. According to the Common Core States Standards Initiative (2018), 42 states, 4 territories, the District of Columbia, and the Department of Defense Education Activity require Common Core literacy. As Common Core State Standards (CCSS), including literacy standards for social studies, have been implemented into 42 states' social studies curricula, an increased need for research regarding best practices in reading and writing instruction in the content areas has emerged (Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2018). CCSS require secondary readers to be able to analyze primary source documents in a variety of ways, and the standards' focus on content-specific literacy at the secondary level requires more focus on research, argumentation, primary source documents, and use of evidence. CCSS do not focus on specific history or social studies content but rather the reading and writing skills

inherent in social studies practice. For example, the first CCSS for History and Social Studies asks that students be able to "Cite specific textual evidence to support analysis of primary and secondary sources, attending to such features as the date and origin of the information" (Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2018). Additionally, the NCSS Teacher Standards (2004) specify that all history teachers, whether teaching an American, World or other type of history course, should "enable learners to develop historical comprehension in order that they might reconstruct the literal meaning of a historical passage [and] identify the central question(s) addressed in historical narrative" (NCSS, 2004, p.37). In order to meet the multiple forms of standards based around using primary source documents with all students, regardless of reading level, a need for further research regarding what teaching methods are being presently employed and what teaching methods are most effective has developed. While a significant amount of literature exists on the use of primary source documents with advanced secondary or postsecondary readers, such literature on struggling secondary readers is limited.

Finally, little of the research done in primary source reading focuses on how teachers teach students to read primary source documents at present in their classroom. As detailed in chapter 2, researchers have analyzed the psychology of reading, attempted to detail the steps students take to understand a document, and provided strategies based on other research about language and literacy, but few studies deeply analyze what instructional strategies teachers use in their classrooms to make primary source documents effective, even as the Common Core requires more reading and understanding of these documents (Alvermann, Gillis, & Phelps, 2012; Harvey & Goudvis, 2007; Baxter & Reddy, 2007; Reisman, 2012). In order to serve the needs of World History teachers in teaching struggling readers, I aimed to understand how teachers approach these readers and look at what types of lessons work in these classrooms.

Methodology

I chose a case study format for my dissertation because case studies can be used to closely evaluate a process. This case study provided an opportunity to look at the process of teaching struggling readers to understand primary source documents in great detail and from many angles. Examining a few teachers and their lessons closely allowed me to understand the step-by-step methods that successful World History teachers use to teach their struggling readers to read and understand primary sources. By analyzing each step individually and holistically, I better understood the process by which these successful World History teachers operate.

My case studies was modeled after Wineburg and Wilson's article (and later book chapter) *Models of Wisdom* (1991, 2001). This article lamented that "much knowledge about good teaching never finds its way into the professional literature, remaining instead in the minds of good teachers" (Wineburg & Wilson, 2001). To better understand good teaching in history, Wineburg and Wilson analyzed and juxtaposed the teaching styles of two excellent history teachers, Elizabeth Jensen and John Price.

Elizabeth Jensen supervised her class through a debate simulating various perspectives of British taxation on the American colonies, taking a role Wineburg and Wilson described as "the invisible teacher" (Wineburg & Wilson, 2001). Jensen's lesson consisted of three days of thoroughly structured and researched debates between students. The students executed the debates seemingly independent of Jensen, who spent most of these lessons in the corner of the room writing notes. "During these classes, Jensen did little that would conventionally be called 'teaching': she did not lecture; she did not write on the board; she did not distribute a worksheet, quiz, or test" (Wineburg and Wilson, 2001, p. 159). Wineburg and Wilson saw Jensen's lesson

as tremendously successful, built on a vision of history teaching that allowed her students to engage in the dynamic process of learning about both language and history.

John Price facilitated his class through a similar discussion as "the visible teacher," guiding the class each step of the way. Price began a lecture on the Intolerable Acts with his class that resembles a conversation. While Wineburg and Wilson acknowledged that Price's lesson appears to be "teacher-dominated, whole-group instruction, with activities centered on the teacher's questions and explanations" (Wineburg & Wilson, 2001, p. 165), Price also was described as a master actor, engaging students and pushing them to think about both the context of historical decisions as well as how history is created.

Wineburg and Wilson called their study "Models of Wisdom," detailing the successes behind each teacher's strategies, analyzing each teacher's effectiveness, and comparing the two styles of teaching in a way that highlighted potential areas for research and practical applications. Wineburg would later republish this article as a chapter in *Historical Thinking and Other Unnatural Acts*. The name "Models of Wisdom" is specific to Wineburg and Wilson's particular study of two history teachers, but this type of case study is part of the field of "wisdom of practice." Wisdom of practice studies occur in a variety of academic fields, ranging from medicine to business to social work, as a type of case study in which a researcher observes and interviews veterans in a given field who use their experience and expertise to hone their craft. Wineburg and Wilson's study began with eleven experienced high school history teachers who participated in in-depth interviews and observations. From those eleven teachers, Wineburg and Wilson chose to write about Jensen and Price. Building a dissertation from a similar model would yield a wealth of information about how successful World History teachers teach primary source documents. While the concept of finding a veteran and observing their successes seems

obvious, a wisdom of practice study can help to deeper understand the phenomenon of success within a classroom.

When I began to pursue a Ph.D., my goal was to better understand how to take existing research and make it applicable to classroom teachers. This wisdom of practice study turned the tables on that goal while still pursuing it, allowing me to look at what classroom teachers do that is effective and make it applicable to existing research. While I have read a good deal about characteristics of struggling readers, teaching strategies for struggling readers, and primary source documents in World History, I find that much of what I learn is difficult to apply to myself or to my colleagues. Because many faculty may not have the desire or opportunity to share their wisdom, the literature about a technique is likely nowhere near as complete or rich as it could be. A huge variety of literature already exists regarding applications of Wineburg's historical thinking strategies, and much of Wineburg's work has been packaged into marketable lessons designed for easy teacher use. However, even teachers I know who are familiar with and have favorable opinions of Wineburg's work develop their own adaptations of his strategies for their personalities and their classrooms. At the end of the day, what actually happens in the classroom impacts the student more than the lesson plan or the theory behind it. Observing and analyzing the methods of teachers as they practice provided brand new insight into existing strategies and theories of teaching primary source documents as well as create ideas for new strategies and research. This wisdom of practice study which compares the practice of different teachers allowed me to deeply understand some of the processes by which teachers create meaning, knowledge, and experiences within a classroom.

Research Questions

In this study, I was most immediately was concerned with questions of pedagogy. I sought to understand the pedagogy used by effective World History teachers who use primary source documents with struggling readers, their rationale behind using such pedagogy, and their methods of determining the effectiveness of such pedagogy.

1. How do World History teachers teach struggling readers to understand the complex vocabulary and concepts associated with primary source documents at the beginning of the school year?
2. How do World History teachers evaluate the effectiveness of their instruction on the use of primary source documents with struggling readers?
3. How do World History teachers perceive their effectiveness of their instruction on the use of primary source documents with struggling readers, and what evidence do they have to support this perception?

My research questions asked, "How?" According to Pressle-Goetz and LeCompte (1991), a "how" question implies a need for a deeply detailed look into a complex, multi-step process. I chose a case study format for my dissertation because case studies can be used to closely evaluate a process. The case study gave me an opportunity to look at the process of teaching struggling readers to understand primary source documents in great detail and from many angles. Looking at a few teachers and their lessons closely allowed me to understand the step-by-step methods that successful World History teachers use to teach their struggling readers to read and understand primary sources. By looking at each step individually and holistically, I was able to better analyze and understand the process by which these successful teachers of the World History course operate.

Significance of the Study

This study adds to the scholarly work in the field of World History education. Much of the current literature in the teaching World History is about what should be taught, continuing the debate of whether World History should center on the study of Western civilization or if the course should be more global in emphasis. The literature on World History teaching focuses more on the theory of pedagogy and less on actual existing pedagogy. While what to teach is certainly an important issue, what is being taught in the present certainly bears merit to study. In this regard, my study provided a much-needed look into the present pedagogical approaches to World History.

Teaching struggling readers to read anything is a challenge, and the use of primary source documents comes with its own set of dilemmas in a World History course. For students to think historically with a primary source document as Wineburg advocates, they must contextualize a document, understand its source, and corroborate it with other evidence. Contextualization can be quite difficult when reading a document from America 20 years ago. However, when reading a document such as Hammurabi's Code, which is approximately 3785 years old, translated from a language that is no longer spoken, and comes from a civilization 7000 miles away that no longer exists, understanding its context and meaning becomes significantly more difficult. While I understand that the nature of these "models of wisdom" studies implies that the data collected within the studies is not applicable to every teacher, the study provides a look at how effective, veteran teachers of World History approach these very complicated and very real problems with students who struggle with reading.

Organization of the Study

The remainder of this study is organized into four chapters. In chapter 2, I analyze the literature pertaining to secondary literacy in the content areas, reading of primary source documents, and research and instruction related to the World History course. Chapter 3 details the research design and methodology, including selection of participants and research site. Chapter 4 contains the data collected, an analysis of the data, and a discussion of the findings of the study. Chapter 5 contains a summary of the study, conclusions, recommendations for teachers, and recommendations for further research. Finally, the study will conclude with a bibliography and any appendices needed.

2. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The purpose of this review of the literature is to develop a greater understanding of my research questions across a variety of fields, as reading and social studies are both often studied within separate academic fields. Following a discussion of search techniques, the review is divided into two sections. First, I provide an analysis of the literature regarding reading in secondary history education. This analysis is further divided into the subsections reading like a historian, texts used in history classrooms, practices for struggling readers, and a discussion of merging the three aforementioned fields of literature. Next, I provide a synopsis of research specifically related to the secondary World history course. Finally, I provide a discussion of pedagogical methods researchers suggest for teaching primary source documents to struggling readers of World History.

The Importance of Literacy in Social Studies

The importance of reading in social studies education has been acknowledged by educators and those making educational policy for nearly as long as the field has existed. As far back as the American Historical Association's 1902 report on "Historical Sources in Schools," historians have believed that "to discourage and burden a pupil by unintelligent reference to a document beyond his thoughtful comprehension…is a dangerous error" (Historical sources in schools, 1902). Both textbooks and primary sources must be used, and students must be taught to properly read them. Unfortunately, over the course of the last 115 years, the literature on how to teach students to read and analyze social studies texts has been less clear than the literature espousing the importance of multiple texts. The most recent nationwide initiative regarding literacy in social studies is the Common Core State Standards (CCSS), which have been adopted

by 42 states. The CCSS regarding content-specific literacy at the secondary level emphasize research, argumentation, primary source documents, and use of evidence.

Literacy Skills in Social Studies

Despite strong efforts in language arts-related fields, research has shown that literacy is content-specific, and increasing amounts of literature have been written over the past 20 years to show that literacy in history differs from literacy in other content areas. Many basic literacy strategies can work across content fields, but in order to truly understand the social studies, certain specific strategies should be employed to teach students to analyze historical information beyond basic summarization and truly delve into the social studies curriculum. Literacy research in social studies has evolved into three general forms that try to explain the best way to encourage historical literacy amongst adolescent readers: research on reading like a historian, research in content areas adapted to specifically apply to social studies, and research on using texts to develop historical literacy. While literacy research in social studies has a distinct difference to it from literacy in history, the literature in building reading comprehension in social studies can serve as a tool to boost historical thinking skills, which many historians advocate should be a part of modern history instruction (Burton, 2011; Haydn, 2015; Reisman, 2013; Stearns, 2004; Wineburg, 2001).

Reading Like a Historian

Reading has always been inherent to the study of social studies, and the use of how texts impact social studies evolved naturally from the discipline. What should children read, what information should they derive from it, and how will they make meaning from what they have read? These questions have had different answers throughout the last century, and as the questions changed, texts changed along with them. Attempts as early as the 1930's were made to

capitalize on the nature of social studies as a set of problems to attempt to solve by turning courses of study into multi-disciplinary, analytic series of issues. Rugg tried to move students toward thinking and analyzing problems with his *Man and his Changing Society* materials, and Kownslar worked an "inquiry-based" methodology into his *Discovering American History* textbooks as a part of the New Social Studies movement of the 1960's (Washington, 2010). However, neither of these methods really endured. The content of Rugg's textbooks were seen as too far left politically, and the New Social Studies disappeared over time in favor of a more traditional narrative model of teaching social studies.

In 1986, Rosenszweig and Weinland argued, "We have long known that students do not learn information in isolation, waiting for that magic day when they will be called upon to use it" (Rosenzweig, 1986). To prevent social studies from becoming a series of memorized facts, students should solve problems and make decisions as part of an engaging social studies curriculum. But how is that curriculum created, and how can struggling readers be taught to use that curriculum effectively? Rosenzweig and Weinland (1986) argued for the return of a model like the New Social Studies, saying that in order for students to really have motivation in learning history, the approach to learning history must be changed from gaining knowledge to understanding a changing, evolving process through the course of inquiry. Of course, the problem again comes around to teacher involvement. While inquiry may prove more interesting and provide more student learning, the process of teaching inquiry is no small feat. Even advocates Rosenzweig and Weinland (1986) asked, "How…is the history teacher to make the process of historical inquiry comprehensible as well as significant to adolescents? If the effort is as difficult and frustrating as recent experience with 'inquiry' teaching has demonstrated, should

teachers even attempt to teach an historical method to pre-collegiate students?" These questions are still a concern more than three decades later.

Around the same time, the idea having students "do history" as though they were a historian became prevalent. Rosenzweig and Weinland (1986) promoted the British model of learning history, looking at the England's Schools Council History 13-16 Project. This project, about 10 years old in 1986, first introduced students to the study of history with a "What Is History?" course designed to help students analyze and understand history as historians do with topics such as "Enquiry in Depth" and "History Around Us." The "What Is History?" course used primary sources as evidence used to prove or disprove theories and questions, and discussion of these materials provided students with a tool to discover the relationships between facts and ideas. Using these introductory topics, students begin to learn that history is less about finding one universal truth and more about making decisions using evidence. After the "What Is History?" course, students are engaged in guided studies of ideas interesting to them and often local in topic to promote history as a life-long course of study based on reaching an historical conclusion based upon the best available evidence.

Rosenzweig and Weinland's (1986) argument for a British model has not been adopted nationally or on any large scale, but their ideas have not fallen on deaf ears. As the 1980's rolled into the 1990's, psychology began to weave its way into the study of how students learn social studies, and ideas arguing for a more engaging, more authentic way of studying history began. While only a few have truly advocated for reforming history education into a British-style curriculum, the basic ideas behind inquiry-based historical reasoning as a key component of American history education have endured and become a central part of the contemporary social studies education landscape.

The most notable expert in reading and thinking like a historian is Wineburg. At the start of his studies in historical literacy in the 1980's, he lamented the lack of research in historical understanding—as it had many implications then and still has many implications now. His early work reflects an interest in the use of cognitive processes in historical problem solving, and psychology remains an important part of the justification for and use of "doing history" instead of teaching history in a more conventional way. In fact, much of the modern research in reading in history that is not driven by Wineburg's work comes from either psychology or language arts education (Wineburg, 1991).

In his earlier works, Wineburg (1991) provided heuristics used in the teaching of primary and secondary sources: sourcing, corroboration, and contextualization. To think like a historian, students first look at the source of the reading. Who created this reading, and what were the biases of the creator? Next, students should corroborate the reading with other available readings to confirm key points and validity of viewpoints. Perfetti also refers to sourcing corroboration in his works as "knowledge of derivation of materials:" he wanted students to understand the origins of the historical readings (Perfetti, 2010). Finally, students should understand the context of the reading, placing the events of the reading in terms of the historical time period. Beck and McKeown support using a variety of sources in the classroom to help fill in the blanks the textbook's narrative often provides and to give context to certain aspects of the reading that may seem to be randomly inserted (Beck & McKeown, 1997).

Wineburg pointed out that historians examined a document in two different manners while creating history. First, a document is a rhetorical artifact, meaning that it was written for some purpose, and the historian (or in this case, the student reader) must first determine that purpose. Second, the document is a human instrument, meaning that the document should reveal

information about the person doing the writing. Teaching a student to examine a document in these two ways builds historical literacy in that students will better be able to understand how the document is written as well as how it relates to the greater narrative of an event. In a study with Fournier, Wineburg calls for teachers to build literacy through building students' contextualized thinking (Wineburg & Fournier,1994). Rather than viewing past through the lens of the present, students should think like a historian in terms of considering the past on its own terms. Wineburg's argument for teaching students to think like a historian using primary source documents rather than a textbook or work of historical fiction is that primary sources give students a chance to develop their own narrative based on the voices of discussions from within history. However, in order for students to develop this narrative effectively, considerable teacher guidance is required, a common theme in any discussion of classroom literacy.

Historical inquiry and investigation may well prove to be the wave of the future of teaching history, reading, writing, and thinking in an engaging manner, but if historical inquiry were an easy and foolproof method, inquiry would have caught on in the 1890's, 1930's, or 1960's when first introduced by Fred Fling, Lucy Salmon, or Harold Rugg (Bohan 2004, Chisholm 2014, Napoleon 2016). On the contrary, implementing historical inquiry comes with a variety of problems. To start, historical inquiry is not only difficult to teach but difficult to do as an adult. The level of concern for the difficulty in teaching historical inquiry is illuminated in the title of one chapter in Lesh's *Why Don't You Just Tell Us The Answer?*, a book advocating for teaching using evidence to investigate the past like a historian, called "How Am I Supposed to Do This Every Day?: Historical Investigation vs. Sleep" (Lesh, 2011).

Wineburg admited that even seasoned historians struggle with historical thinking and interpretation, and much of the research he has done with high schoolers applies to high-flyers:

motivated students with intelligence and test scores that rank far above average. Even if teachers are in agreement with the idea of teaching like a historian, how can students with average or below average reading level or intelligence comprehend primary source documents to begin with, then take them to the level of understanding Wineburg's method requires? This area, although weak in the field, has grown with the rise of historical thinking as part of the social studies curriculum.

Wineburg's work on Reading Like a Historian has evolved into several large programs. Wineburg heads the Stanford History Education Group (SHEG), employs nearly 40 scholars around the globe and produces professional development, articles, and instructional materials for teachers across America. The online curriculum created by SHEG and its partners has passed 3.3 million downloads in every state and in 127 countries. The lessons include World History lessons, American history lessons, and introductory historical thinking skills, such as an investigation into a fictional fight in a cafeteria using the viewpoints of a variety of individuals involved. These lessons use the format advocated by Wineburg to create easily reproducible lessons for teachers of secondary students and include accommodations for struggling readers such as underlining and defining key words. The SHEG lessons often use a variety of primary sources so as to help students better discern historical thinking processes such as sourcing and corroboration.

As the Reading Like a Historian curriculum gained a massive following, exploring its efficacy became a focus point. SHEG uses the term Beyond the Bubble to describe their approach to assessing historical thinking outside of a multiple choice test. Beyond the Bubble also refers to a website designed to showcase SHEG's efforts in creating assessments to better understand how Historical Thinking processes impacted students. Breakstone, Smith, and

Wineburg explained in a 2013 Phi Delta Kappan article that little work had been done previously to study how document-based learning such as Reading Like a Historian and Historical Thinking worked on real students and how teachers could assess their students' learning. Although Advanced Placement History courses have been using Document Based Questions (DBQs) since at least 1973, Breakstone, Smith, and Wineburg note that the little research done historical thinking showed that students were able to pull information from the documents but not analyze them in any meaningful way (2013). As such, the SHEG team has spent a considerable amount of its energy since 2013 figuring out how to assess the effectiveness of historical thinking, and the conclusion has overarchingly been that more attention needs to be paid to creating valid assessment materials for historical thinking. This conclusion is especially pertinent since all of the AP History courses—AP US History, AP European History, and AP World History—have transitioned to requiring more historical thinking skills throughout their courses and in their exams. For example, along with the DBQ, AP History tests include multiple choice questions based off a stimulus, such as an excerpt from a primary source or an image, and students are to analyze the stimulus in order to find the answer to the question (College Board, 2018). It is my hope that the increased attention and money spent on historical thinking skills by the College Board will provide a much larger scale of data to work with in the upcoming years. Because AP World History has only this year redesigned its test to conform to historical thinking skills, teachers are not sure what that will look like. Breakstone, Smith, and Wineburg were unsure of whether such tests as a DBQ or multiple choice question can accurately assess historical thinking skills (2013), so perhaps such assessments are invalid.

Studies of the effectiveness have been conducted in the past 5 years on the effectiveness of historical thinking skills that do not involve exams or advanced students, but they are few and

far between. Abby Reisman, a notable SHEG alumna now working at the University Of Pennsylvania Graduate School Of Education, investigated the effects of the SHEG curriculum in schools. Reisman spent six months in five secondary schools in San Francisco using the Reading Like a Historian curriculum available on the SHEG website to create a predictable, repeatable lesson template called the Document-Based Lesson in order to engage students in process of historical inquiry without uprooting traditional norms and structures already existing in the social studies classroom, such as lecture, group work, or whole-class discussion (Reisman, 2012). Reisman found that the Document-Based Lesson helped students to develop better disciplinary reading habits, particularly struggling readers.

Texts Used in Reading in History Classrooms

The National Institute for Literacy describes three types of literacy: Prose literacy, document literacy, and quantitative literacy (Baxter, 2007). Prose literacy, the ability to read a continuous document such as a newspaper article or instructions, and document literacy, the ability to read and understand non-continuous documents such as a map or job application, are most commonly used in reading and understanding social studies. According to the NIL, teachers should explicitly teach the understanding of these types of literacy in order to build on the understanding of history (Baxter, 2007). Several historical education researchers have broached this field.

One crucial component to understanding history that appeared throughout the work of several researchers is simplification, also referred to as summarization. Often, a very complex historical situation will be broken down into a few sentences in a social studies text. Students must both know how to summarize complex passages themselves but also how to look for simplification in the materials they are presented. Simplification aligns with a second

component in understanding history, interpretation. A 1985 study by Slater and Graves that examined the ability of college students to detect bias found that often, college students struggled to determine what information had been left out or overlooked, particularly when a textbook's materials were presented. To the college students studied, a primary source's bias was easy to detect, but a textbook was usually perceived as unbiased. In order to develop historical literacy, Slaver and Graves, along with many other researchers, argue that teachers must show students methods of simplification both for their own use in summarizing and for their understanding of a text. Beyond detecting bias, interpretation plays an integral role in students' historical literacy because students must be able to develop relationships, determine causality, and understand concepts.

In 2010, Perfetti described the psychology behind reading historical documents as temporal-causal: history needed to be presented as a causal chain of events to boost memory and to build connections between people, events, and ideas. Perfetti next argued, as Wineburg (2001), Lesh (2011), and others had and would, that students would need to be taught historical methods in order to truly understand the history they read. Other researchers would also build upon the need for several key elements of historical development to be taught.

Similarly, according to Perfetti's two components to learning history (temporal-causal links and the teaching of historical methods) and his four implications for teaching historical methods (simplification, interpretation, use of primary and secondary sources, and knowledge of derivation of sources), the learning of history occurs through first learning events and then applying interpretive reasoning. Interpretive reasoning can contain use of evidence, argumentation, and interpretive strategies. Like Wineburg and Fournier (1996), Perfetti (2010) advocated that students use the temporal-causal events as a framework to build their analysis

upon, and students must be given tools to understand and interpret a variety of readings and their context.

Practices for Struggling Readers

The amount of literature on literacy in the content areas is staggering, and content-area literacy has become a large area of focus for education as whole. Much of this literature is marketed to reach a wide audience; that is, the literature contains broad-based reading comprehension strategies designed for learning of terms and ideas rather than focus on specific characteristics relating to history. As the Common Core grew to become a part of 42 states' curricula, the trend toward content area literacy grew. Each academic discipline needs its own strategies to read and understand its content, whether the teacher is teaching biology or economics, but the use of reading comprehension strategies as a whole has potential to help aid students who struggle with reading in adapting a more inquiry-focused method of teaching history.

Massey and Heafner detail several easily adaptable reading techniques for social studies teachers of all levels to help them boost student reading comprehension (Massey, 2004). They later altered the scaffolded reading experience (SRE) for use in social studies, using questioning and concept mapping as pre-reading techniques, and Key, Bradley, & Bradley later adapted Massey and Heafner's strategies to create several graphic organizer techniques (Key, 2010). Massey and Heafner's most effective pre-reading technique, called List Group Label (LGL), involves the teacher writing a topic on the board and asking students to list 25 to 40 brief responses related to the topic. Once the students develop related ideas, the teacher asks the students to group the words into smaller categories, pointing out nuances of certain words or ideas as they sort the words. After the list has been categorized into groups, those groups must

be labeled. This allows students to connect prior knowledge to the topic being read about as well as to recognize gaps in prior knowledge that need to be addressed.

Pre-reading techniques in social studies literacy should be followed by a modeling of text reading (McBride, 2007). When pre-reading techniques have been effectively utilized, students should be ready to connect their reading with appropriate prior knowledge as well as be prepared to develop new ideas based on some structure. But, as the previously mentioned researchers pointed out, social studies text is specifically hard to read for a variety of reasons. During-reading strategies need to be modeled so that students can complete several tasks: identify main ideas, understand the structure of the text, determine meaning from social-studies specific terms and concepts as well as from out-of-date language, and to recognize differences between different types of text. While much research has been done on history as a narrative, students will also encounter causal, descriptive, persuasive, scientific, and other works in social studies, as social studies encompasses a large variety of topics.

Wineburg (1991) frequently references the during-reading technique he uses called a "think-aloud." As people read, they articulate (whether aloud or on paper) what they are thinking as they read. What connections are being made with the material? What other ideas does these historical ideas make you have? How do you feel about this material? While Wineburg uses think-alouds for research purposes, Wineburg has taken a strategy large in the language arts world and placed it squarely in the center of his research, both helping him to understand what his subjects are thinking and helping his subjects to clarify what they think about a text.

An often-used technique used in social studies reading is the graphic organizer. Graphic organizers have many benefits, but to truly develop strong readers of social studies content,

graphic organizers need to be scaffolded. Over time, as students become more familiar with graphic organizers, teacher support can be scaled back so that students are working independently with their Too often, students are given a graphic organizer to fill out in class without explanation of how graphic organizers work or how to develop them. A 1995 study of graphic organizer instruction by Griffin, Malone, and Kameenui showed that students who had explicit instruction in graphic organizer theory and construction performed better in a test of transfer of knowledge than students who were simply given a graphic organizer (Griffin, 1995). Students who understand how to develop a graphic organizer can later use graphic organizers in creating new knowledge and dissecting a difficult text.

Beyond graphic organizers, Massey and Heafner (2004) provide techniques for identifying text organization. Teachers must be aware that students may not have received explicit instruction in understanding external text features such as the index, table of contents, titles and subtitles, and boldface vocabulary words, and many students also struggle with understanding the internal text features such as key words for different types of reading (e.g. transitional phrases such as because, as a result, or on the other hand). After teachers model appropriate reading throughout a text structure and use of an appropriate graphic organizer, students should be able to develop a graphic organizer after skimming through a text to first identify its structure.

Massey and Heafner (2004) also share the ideas of Wineburg (1991) and Perfetti (2010) on using multiple texts. While use of multiple texts has a huge variety of benefits, including allowing multiple perspectives and filling in gaps in textbook knowledge, the use of multiple texts also introduces another level of complexity to classroom instruction as primary sources frequently do not have a particular text structure. For that reason, pre-reading and during-

reading strategies are particularly important, and Massey and Heafner (2004) argue that primary sources can often be compared using an inquiry chart. An inquiry chart is a very simple graphic organizer which places the areas of focus in reading across the top of the paper, allowing students to fill in information as they find it across multiple sources as well as comparing the information between sources. While this does not teach bias and could be altered to include elements of analysis, Massey and Heafner's (2004) strategy shows students how to determine main ideas and how to find similar ideas in different text structures. Voss (2006) also describes uses of a causal map to develop ideas of cause-and-effect throughout interpreting historical documents. Students must be explicitly shown different methods of constructing appropriate graphic organizers so that they can create their own once they are able to identify the types of text structure and the information to be gleaned from the graphic organizer (Voss, 2006).

Finally, most strategies on literacy in social studies education advocate for post-reading strategies, often referred to in an assessment manner. A common element of cognitive psychology is that students should be given an element of choice in their assessment style; as students have different strengths and interests, the way they present their material to best show learning as well as bridge important connections should reflect those differences. The majority of the literature on reading like a historian provides for some choice, as students pursue their choice of inquiry, ideas, and structure as they understand their documents. Massey and Heafner approach choice by giving two strategies—requestioning and ABC charts. Requestioning involves students creating questions to ask the teacher that are explicitly formed from the text. The teacher responds in turn with questions requiring synthesis and analysis, thus modeling analytic thinking for students while preparing them to answer both dialectical and interpretive questions. This process gives students some choice, as they can focus on what they think is most

important in the text. Massey and Heafner's other strategy, ABC graffiti, allows students to choose words starting with different letters in the alphabet that reflect important vocabulary and concepts present in the text. After working in groups to complete the ABC list, students will also summarize the important words and concepts in a paragraph and thesis statement.

Merging Three Schools of Thought

While most historians abhor the idea of learning a text in order to gain specific pieces of knowledge, students with lower reading levels and low content knowledge will require some background work in order to work toward thinking like a historian. Rosenzweig and Weinland (1986) point out that students participating in Britain's historical inquiry project took significantly more history courses as children than Americans do, and their more in-depth knowledge of history allows them to analyze history in a deeper way.

While thinking historically may not clearly align with the ideas of reading instruction and textbook analysis, much work can be done in terms of using the ideas of thinking historically in a modern history classroom. Most teachers do not teach the best and brightest on any given day, and as pointed out in most of the literature, thinking historically is challenging for learners of any level of cognitive ability or background knowledge. By incorporating the wealth of information on reading in the content area and applying that knowledge to what we know about textbooks, teachers can fill in the gaps students have in background knowledge to develop a framework for implementing historical inquiry within an everyday classroom. Filling in these gaps also provides for teachers to be able to reach many of the standards required by testing while diving deep into a topic which interests students. In order to teach like a historian in an everyday classroom, teachers must first put in place the tools to read and think independently.

Literacy in the World History Classroom

The bulk of studies in historical literacy in the secondary classroom are focused on American history, but every state has World History standards (Mead 2006). Significantly less work has been done regarding the development of historical thinking in a World History classroom, although the area is growing.

Many World History standards involve such a long historical time period that developing a cohesive image for a whole course can be daunting. In the state of Georgia, the American history standards require teachers to teach about time periods from roughly 1600 CE to the present, while the World History standards require teachers to teach about time periods from 3500 BCE to the present in the same amount of instructional time (https://www.georgiastandards.org/Standards/Pages/BrowseStandards/SocialStudiesStandards9-12.aspx, 1/11/2017). American history may ask students to understand a time period they did not live in or a place within America they may not have ever been, but in comparison to the World history course, the topics taught in American history are all quite modern. While an American history student may not have ever been to Texas or lived in the 1800's, concepts arising in 1100 BCE India are likely more foreign to many American students regardless of ethnicity or country of origin due to the context of the time period alone.

Beyond the volume of history included in the World history standards, the amount of content and diverse range of topics within a World history class can be daunting to approach. World history has become less Western and more global over the past 15 years, particularly with the addition of the Advanced Placement World History course in 2000. The incorporation of cultures that may be entirely unfamiliar to an American student, particularly in a rural area, means that students may have a perspective more akin to an astronaut looking at the moon than a

person firmly ensconced in ancient Beijing or even London. Looking at this global perspective through the lens of a historian may be even more important, as using multiple sources and perspectives is more likely to encourage pluralistic thinking, but teaching students to think historically about completely foreign words, ideas, and places is even harder than it is to think about from an American history perspective.

Peter Stearns, the foremost social studies educator in world history, has written a considerable amount about the teaching of world history in advanced placement and college level courses. Stearns (2000) argues for the teaching of global issues as a way for students to gain an understanding of their identities, of the United States on a world scale, and of social issues within the world around them. However, he is critically aware that all world history courses, obviously, must be highly selective when it comes to topics of study and advocates for three goals for every world history teacher. First, teachers must be able to provide some data to base exercises upon. Many World History students begin the course with little background knowledge on most topics in the course, and thus, most activities in a World History course need more basic facts to start upon as well as framework for how to use and assess those facts. Secondly, there are a few certain topics that Stearns believes people in contemporary society should know, and teachers should pick these topics. Examples provided by Stearns include the industrial revolution and Islam—ideas that are integral components of our cultural "canon" which provide basic information about how our society functions. Finally, Stearns (2000) argues that world history should teach an international perspective, meaning that world history courses should look beyond Western cultures. Cultures should be studied for their differences with Western culture to promote their successes and allow students to look critically at all nations, including their own. While Stearns' guidelines for paring down the content of a World History

course are good in theory, they only underscore the difficulties of teaching world history if one hopes to teach students to think historically. Not only will teachers need to decide what to teach, but teachers will also need to teach basic background knowledge before even considering teaching historical thinking.

Use of documents in world history has merited several books of lessons and articles containing ideas, but overall, no large-scale study of struggling readers in a World History class has been undertaken. In a college World History course, Stearns worked with students to enhance their ability to think historically using strategies similar to Wineburg's with positive results. However, very little of Stearns' work or of any work in World history relates to those students who are functionally literate. My work will focus on secondary world history students with a low reading level and lessons which build the ability of these students to understand what they read about the world before them and around them now.

Interventions for Struggling Readers

While budget cuts eliminated the AMO courses from my school (see Chapter 1), the work I did with these students was both the most challenging and the most rewarding work I have done in my life and has shaped the research I plan for my dissertation and hopefully beyond. I found working with these students to provide them the tools to participate as a literate member of a democratic society to be a valuable endeavor for all parties. But segregating students by ability raises a lot of questions that educators have struggled to answer for decades. Does separation by ability promote a negative identity for students who struggle with reading? How can students who struggle be better taught to advance their literacy in a manner that reinforces a positive outlook on students' abilities?

Greenleaf (2009) suggested that labeling students as struggling readers provides a negative connotation to literacy of which students are already painfully aware. And certainly, if

these students are simply thrown into a class based upon ability and never taught to work beyond it, that negative connotation will perpetuate. But what Greenleaf (2009) argued against is not necessarily the grouping of students into categories; what she took issue with is the implications of said groupings on instruction, which is a valid and very real concern. Beers (2009) described an inner-city school she visited in which teachers firmly believed that students who struggled academically needed a structured education based on strict discipline, memorization, and drilling basic skills. If these already vulnerable students receive disparities in instruction, the challenges facing them may be insurmountable. When students who struggle are not given access to rigorous, engaging instruction, their negative emotions towards themselves and their relationship towards school are sure to continue. As Greenleaf (2009) points out, "Young people who struggle with reading have a right to expert instruction that treats them as capable and competent and that helps them to use existing competencies to develop the knowledge, dispositions, and strategies needed for academic life and success" (p. 12). Programs that exacerbate youth's negative identity constructions abound, but segregation by ability level is not necessarily the problem. Segregation resulting in poor instruction that perpetuates the disparities in literacy is the problem.

Greenleaf (2009) advocated for an approach to transform students' identities as nonreaders into identities as capable readers of academic and non-academic works. In order to most effectively work with students who struggle with reading and boost both their literacy and confidence, these students require explicit additional instruction in the secondary levels. As Greenfield (2009) argued, most students are taught to read in elementary school and can effectively read a sentence, sound out words they do not know, and understand a basic level of meaning. Brief interventions will not help the most struggling readers, and many content-area

teachers are ill-equipped to deal with the needs of struggling readers. Tovani (2000) described an indignant secondary teacher as saying, “There is nothing I did that made my good readers good and there is nothing I can do to help my poor readers improve. If they can’t read well by sixth grade, it’s too late” (p.7). What would an approach to helping struggling readers look like?

In order to look at how such an approach would work, the definition of literacy first has to be examined. The National Assessment of Adult Literacy (NAAL) provides the vague definition that literacy is "using printed and written information to function in society, to achieve one’s goals, and to develop ones knowledge and potential” (NAAL, 2013). If literacy means that a person can read by figuring out the words and gaining surface-level meaning, then many of the students labeled as struggling in secondary levels are certainly literate. However, even by the NAAL’s standards, only 13 percent of adults in 2003 could read at a level that allows them to perform complex and challenging literacy activities, and 22 percent possessed only the simple, basic literacy skills. These challenges are particularly pronounced for students of color; only 16% of African-American high school seniors and 20% of Hispanic high school seniors scored proficient on a national reading test in 2005.

Students often come to high school prepared for instruction requiring memorization and basic skill drills like Beers (2003) described in the inner-city school she visited, and many times, this is the type of instruction they receive. As indicated by these statistics, many of these struggling readers can read on a basic level. If this is all literacy is, then as a nation, we are succeeding in literacy, and instruction based on memorization and discipline is effective. Unfortunately, a clear lack of literacy success can also be documented, requiring a much more extensive definition of literacy and thus literacy instruction. Greenleaf cites the 2007 National Assessment of Educational Progress statistics that “roughly 1 million eighth graders were stalled

at basic literacy levels and another 1.7 million were not proficient" (p. 3). Anecdotally, I cannot ignore that in the first year of AMO, I started out with 52 students and ended with 36. The vast majority of those students dropped out, went to jail, or was expelled from school.

Statistics abound on the likelihood of a child who reads below grade level by fourth grade going to prison. One often-cited statistic comes from the Begin To Read company, which states "Two-thirds of students who cannot read proficiently by the end of fourth grade will end up in jail or on welfare." The conventional belief is that many states use fourth grade reading levels to determine how many prison beds they will need in future years. While the connection between prison bed calculations and fourth grade reading levels has been debated, it sheds light on the glaring truth that students who can only complete basic literacy functions have a significantly reduced chance of functioning in a democratic society. Fourth grade marks the year in the Common Core State Standards, used by 42 states, in which a deeper comprehension and application of reading is applied. Students are to move beyond the foundational skills of phonics, word recognition, and fluency to concepts such as craft and structure and integration of knowledge and ideas.

Gallagher (2004) likened the progression of the reading process to watching a baseball game with his five year-old daughters: "My daughters were able to read the game on a superficial, surface level, but they were unable to see the deeper, richer meaning of the game. They were unaware of the craft, the complexities, and the nuances of baseball" (p. 3). Many struggling readers can figure out the words, but it is difficult to assign meaning. As Tovani (2000) said, "Decoding is not comprehending…decoding is just the beginning…Reading must be about thinking and constructing meaning" (p. 17). Tovani describes many of these students as resistive readers, students who can read at a base level but choose not to when it becomes too

difficult. When two resistive readers were asked how they managed to pass their courses without reading, they both said that either the teacher or a "smart kid" in class would often recap the material for them in the interest of moving through the lesson at the planned pace. However, the challenges that face one resistant reader may not be the same challenges that face another. Because thinking and constructing meaning is a unique process to each individual, a one-size-fits-all approach for teaching reading and literacy cannot suffice.

In order to better serve these students functioning at a lower level of literacy, educators must define literacy in a complex manner and teach literacy in a complex manner. Eisner advocated in 1994 for a definition of literacy that includes a communication of meaning in multiple forms such as the arts, written text, mathematical symbols, and a variety of other tools. Similarly, Alvermann argued in 2002 that effective instruction in literacy "builds on elements of both formal and informal literacies," meaning literacies from both academic and non-academic texts (p. 190). Especially in the digital age, it would be hard to find a high school student who could not demonstrate literacy in an informal manner. Literacy is often a politically motivated concept, and what it truly means to be a literate participant in a democratic society is much different than what is measured by examinations or grade levels.

So many students project negative images of themselves as readers when, in fact, they are quite literate and cannot express that literacy within the boundaries of school. The concept of literacy must include both basic skills and a reflection of students' literary activities outside of school in order to build confident citizens. Labeling students as "struggling readers" because they do not fit into a prescribed school mold can be dangerous and cause those students to unnecessarily withdraw from a productive lifestyle. Greenleaf (2009) described a high school freshman named Terrance. Terrance was a child who read frequently in a variety of contexts

outside of school yet struggled in content-area literacy and reading within the school context. When he was able to apply his reading outside of school to his reading in school, make connections, and apply the strategies used in school to his outside-school reading, Terrance's confidence as a reader boosted tremendously. Knoblauch pointed out in 1990 that "literacy is one of those mischievous concepts, like virtuousness and craftsmanship, that appear to denote capacities but actually convey value judgments" (p.74). Describing a student's literacy only within the confines of school shows only the capabilities the child has within a particular mold. Students like Terrance may need to work to fit into the mold and may need additional resources. But identifying students like Terrance as struggling readers because of his performance on a test or within school, then failing to provide him with the proper tools to rectify this identity places a value judgment on these students' worthiness that these students are clearly aware of and are unable to combat. Labeling struggling readers can only be effective when paired with the tools to liberate the students from that label, which includes looking at literacy from a broader spectrum than grade level or in-school performance.

Greenleaf (2009) proposed an alternate framework to help students like Terrance to boost their literacy in meaningful ways that includes formal literacies, informal literacies, and relationships. In many ways, the work I did with my AMO students echoes the Reading Apprenticeship Academic Literacy (RAAL) approach suggested by Greenleaf (2009) that had so much success with Terrance. According to Greenleaf (2009), RAAL "[fosters] young people's development of reading comprehension strategies and [builds] confidence in using them with difficult texts" (p. 9). Teaching to students who identify as poor readers or as academic failures requires a tailor-made approach to students' strengths, weaknesses, needed skills in content areas, and interests in order to not only facilitate their literacy rates but also their identities as

learners. RAAL instruction and similarly successful reading instruction for struggling readers includes features such as high academic challenge coupled with explicit reading and skills support, use of students existing assets (such as interests or cultural and experiential resources), and an inquiry-oriented learning environment in which students can investigate their own learning.

Greenleaf (2009) is right—struggling readers need explicit instruction in literacy that boosts their confidence, interest, and skills simultaneously. However, Beers (2007) points out that "these students need far more instruction in reading and writing than what can be offered in a regular forty-five-minute class" (p. xv). These students need additional interventions to help them succeed, and they need these interventions consistently by somebody with literacy teaching expertise. Beers describes a continuum for school literacy instruction that begins with a smaller, specialized class with a teacher skilled in reading instruction for those students significantly below grade level. Students move from there to a class scaffolded for increased reading comprehension to a class with ongoing coaching as students practice their learned skills to a focus on content mastery.

Challenges in Defining Students as Struggling Readers

However, students who are struggling in school are often brutally aware of their difficulties and identify with a negative connotation of school. How can students be identified as struggling without automatically attaching a negative connotation to it? Often, their frustrations with reading have already given them a feeling of defeat. In the third year of AMO, a student asked me in front of the rest of the class, "Are we the dumb class? Is that why we're in year-long?" I sputtered through an assurance of "Of course not, honey," but several years later, I am still unsure of how to answer that question. The only thing I could think to do was combat this

personal center of “dumb” with a positive relationship and collaborative, community-based literacy instruction, a philosophy supported by the literacy research mentioned previously.

This literature review demonstrates that much research exists regarding reading like a historian, texts used in history classrooms, and use of primary source documents in the history classroom, as well as pedagogy for reading practices for struggling secondary readers. A gap in the literature subsists in pedagogy for struggling readers in the secondary World History classrooms. To fill this gap, I researched existing pedagogy of teachers of struggling readers using primary source documents in the World History classroom. The next chapter details the research methods for this case study.

3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

As discussed in Chapter 1, this research uses Wineburg's work as a model to answer the question, "How do World History teachers teach struggling secondary readers to understand primary source documents?" Although much research has gone into the reading of primary source documents in history classrooms, this research is primarily focused on U.S. History and on higher-achieving students (i.e. students in Advanced Placement or college courses). In order to answer the research question of "How do World History teachers teach struggling readers to understand the complex vocabulary and concepts associated with primary source documents at the beginning of the school year?," I used the qualitative format of Wineburg &Wilson's (2001) "models of wisdom" case study to analyze the process of teaching struggling secondary readers to understand primary source documents in a World History classroom.

Qualitative Research

Researchers often turn to qualitative studies to discover meaning behind a specific phenomenon (Merriam, 2009). In order to understand specific experiences, a holistic approach aimed at describing a variety of elements of a phenomenon provides a more all-inclusive description than a survey or numerical data analysis would. Rather than use data to describe a phenomenon, qualitative research aims to understand a specific phenomenon as a whole, as this study of effective use of primary source documents with struggling readers in the secondary World History classroom hopes to do. Qualitative research develops a rich description of a phenomenon, much in the way Wineburg & Wilson's 1991 study provided a clear window into the classrooms of two effective teachers using primary source documents. This rich description as provided by qualitative research as modeled by Wineburg & Wilson (2001) allows for a much more detailed understanding of practical applications for use of primary source documents in the secondary classroom.

Qualitative researchers focus on meaning and understanding of a particular phenomenon, rather than to describe the outcome or the product of the phenomenon (Merriam, 2009). In this regard, this research seeks understand the process by which two individual teachers teach the use of primary source documents to struggling secondary readers of World History, not to analyze trends in the use of primary source documents with struggling secondary readers of World History. While the result may not be generalizable to every World History classroom with struggling readers, the understanding of the process of teaching and of the experience can develop additional areas for research and suggest practical applications of the use of primary source documents with struggling secondary readers of World History.

Case Studies and Wisdom of Practice

Yin (2014) describes a case study as an empirical inquiry "that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real world context" (Yin, 2014). Case studies provide opportunities to describe a specific situation with a variety of variables, also described as a bounded system (Merriam, 2009). An analysis of the approaches of individual teachers of World History to using primary source documents with struggling secondary readers is indeed a bounded system, as the research intends to describe how World History teachers teach struggling readers to understand the complex vocabulary and concepts associated with primary source documents.

In developing an understanding of how World History teachers help struggling readers to understand the complex vocabulary and concepts associated with primary source documents, a case study can be used to closely evaluate a process. According to Pressle-Goetz & LeCompte (1991), a "how" question evaluates a complex, multi-step process in a detailed manner. Looking at a few teachers and their lessons closely allowed me to understand the step-by-step methods

that successful World History teachers use to teach their struggling readers to read and to understand primary sources. By looking at each step individually and holistically, a better analysis and understanding of the process by which these successful World History teachers operate was developed.

Case studies have several characteristics. First, case studies are particularistic; a case study focuses on a specific phenomenon (Merriam, 2009). Because this case applies to a particular situation that has seldom been studied in the past but appears frequently in secondary World History courses, the specificity of focus in this regard can help address practical problems in designing instruction for struggling readers in secondary World History. Case studies are also descriptive, providing a rich description of the case itself, including as many variables as possible. Finally, case studies are heuristic, enlightening the phenomenon under study for the reader.

These case studies were modeled after Wineburg & Wilson's article (and later book chapter) *Models of Wisdom* (2001). As discussed in Chapter I, Wineburg & Wilson (2001) analyzed and juxtaposed the teaching styles of two excellent history teachers, Elizabeth Jensen and John Price, selected from 11 possible candidates. The type of case study used by Wineburg & Wilson (2001) is part of the field of "wisdom of practice." Wisdom of practice studies occur in a variety of academic fields, ranging from medicine to business to social work, as a type of case study in which a researcher observes and interviews veterans in a given field who use their experience and expertise to hone their craft. Wineburg & Wilson's (2001) study began with eleven experienced high school history teachers who participated in in-depth interviews and observations. From those eleven teachers, Wineburg & Wilson (2001) chose to write about Jensen and Price. A dissertation in a similar model would yield a wealth of information about

how successful World History teachers effectively teach students to understand primary source documents. Though the concept of finding a veteran and observing their successes seems obvious, a case study in the format of Wineburg & Wilson's (2001) wisdom of practice study can help to deeper understand the phenomenon of success within a classroom.

While there is a wealth of research about characteristics of struggling readers, teaching strategies for struggling readers, and primary source documents in World History, many teachers may not have the desire or opportunity to share their wisdom, and the literature about a technique is likely nowhere near as complete or rich as it could be. In this regard, Merriam (2009) describes a case study as the ideal tool for which to provide access to a phenomenon to which may not previously or otherwise have access. A huge variety of literature already exists regarding applications of Wineburg's historical thinking strategies, and much of Wineburg's work has been packaged into marketable lessons designed for easy teacher use. However, many teachers who are familiar with and have favorable opinions of Wineburg's work develop their own adaptations of his strategies for their personalities and their classrooms. At the end of the day, what actually happens in the classroom impacts the student more than the lesson plan or the theory behind that lesson plan. Observing and analyzing the methods of teachers as they practice could provide brand new insight into existing strategies and theories of teaching primary source documents as well as create ideas for new strategies and research.

According to Weimer (2001), a lot of the best information about great teaching stays in the minds of teachers, never making its way into professional literature. Wentworth, Carranza, & Stipek (2016) explain the relationship as such: "because educational research and the practice of education are centered in very different institutions with different expectations, incentives, and cultures, the connections have been tenuous at best." Conversely, a great deal of research has

already been done on literacy, reading, primary source documents, and history education, yet regardless of how applicable this research can be to teachers, little of it makes its way into a classroom. Why is this? Teachers are often burdened with much to do outside of their day-to-day lessons, and if they do not have enough time to read an academic journal, they certainly do not have a lot of time to share their successes by writing about them in a publishable format. Without quality professional development and time during the school day to engage in this type of reading, many teachers don't have access to such sources or are not aware these sources are available and written for the K-12 audience.

But beyond the usual gripes of "not enough time" or "no reason to read academic literature," a very real and difficult to explain phenomena remains that keeps knowledge of great lessons and great teaching out of academic literature. Teachers know what works and what doesn't within their classroom's walls. Knowing how it works or why it works can be verified empirically, but first we need to examine what exactly it is that is working. Teachers may not be able to identify specific rationale behind using one type of strategy over another; often, veteran teachers simply know what works for them via trial-and-error. Empirical results can be used to verify the success of split-second decisions later, but the initial choice to teach a lesson a certain way is often intuitive. Such an experiential subject matter requires a case study because it allows me to look at the lesson as a whole, then figure out how and why the teacher chose that lesson, and why the teacher ended up with those results. This data could prove to be invaluable in determining the larger implications of those choices the teacher made may be for others, both in terms of research and in terms of practical applications for teachers. While a case study does look at a particular teacher on a particular day, meaning applications for others can be limited,

the wisdom of practice approach can open the door for discussion of effective teaching methods in a particular field.

A successful lesson is not conceived from magic, and yet, the understanding of how a lesson works within a classroom is often nebulous. If great teaching were an impersonal, mechanical process, a handbook to effective pedagogy would have been written long ago, and the value in researching teaching methods would be minimal. However, as Wineburg & Wilson (2001) demonstrated, great teaching of a single topic can look very different. A case study which compares the practice of different teachers allowed me to deeply understand some of the processes by which teachers create meaning, knowledge, and experiences within a classroom.

Purposeful Sampling

Because this study requires a specific type of teacher, the participants were chosen through purposeful sampling. Merriam (2009) explained that purposeful sampling is valuable to a study in which "the investigator wants to discover, understand, and gain insight and therefore must select a sample from which the most can be learned." In this wisdom of practice study, the data is only useful if the participants are skilled teachers of World History that use primary documents with students identified as struggling readers. Purposeful sampling suits this type of data because I need a unique sample to represent this phenomenon.

Morningside Charter Schools in Context

Purposeful sampling first requires me to determine selection criteria. I have chosen the Morningside Public Charter Schools, a small group of charter middle and high schools in a large urban area in the Mid-Atlantic region of the United States. The Morningside Schools serve roughly 1400 students in grades 6-12 in three schools. Because the Morningside Schools are public charter schools, students must apply for admission into a lottery in order to attend, but any

student living in the district in which Morningside is situated is eligible for enrollment, regardless of socioeconomic status, ability, race, gender, nationality, or residential location within the district. Although students apply on a lottery basis, the district in which Morningside is situated is saturated with charter schools, with nearly 120 charter schools serving more than half of the district's 85,000 students. The public school system of this urban area has struggled for decades, and in the mid-1990's, this area began a public charter school movement to provide greater opportunity for success for these struggling students. The Morningside Schools began during this charter school expansion in the late 1990's. However, as the amount of charter schools increased dramatically over the next two decades, the preponderance of charter schools made it difficult for Morningside Schools to maintain the enrollment levels needed to fund the schools. The overabundance of charter schools in Morningside's district means that although Morningside Schools run a lottery, they accept all applicants, who generally live in the surrounding neighborhoods of each school.

The neighborhoods surrounding Morningside Schools are historically black and historically poor, although some gentrification has occurred in the last decade. Parkview Middle and High School, the school site which more than half of all Morningside students attend, is surrounded by government housing. Streets surrounding Morningside are one-way to discourage drive-by shootings, although this does not prevent such incidents from happening. In 2016, a shooting took place in front of Parkview Middle and High School at time of school dismissal. The areas in which the majority of Morningside Schools' students live in are among the poorest and heaviest crime in their urban area, and these areas have been poor and crime-ridden for as long as the urban area has measured such statistics. Students attending the Morningside Schools

are almost entirely black or Hispanic, and so many students receive free or reduced lunch that the Morningside Schools provide breakfast and lunch for free to all students.

The mission of the Morningside Schools is to provide a high-quality education to students who would otherwise attend a failing school district, to prepare these students for college, and to enable these students to participate in public policy in their community, state, and nation to encourage social justice. Because the student population is made up almost entirely of students from marginalized populations, the public policy focus is empowering, as it encourages students to analyze the problems in the community around them and to develop solutions for those problems. This public policy focus requires students to complete quarterly performance tasks in every course which link the curriculum to a related current public policy topic; for example, biology classes connected their plant cells unit to pollution in the local river, then asked students to create a platform to advocate for a change that would reduce the pollution based on their results. In order to graduate from a Morningside High School, students must complete a variety of public policy projects over their high school careers. Freshmen and sophomores spend the last two weeks of the school year in self-selected capstone projects in which students pick a topic that concerns them in the local urban area, research the topic by visiting sites and speaking to experts, provide service related to their topic and develop a way to create change within that topic. In one such project, students researching teen homelessness visited local homeless shelters, participated in panels with people who had been homeless as a teen, worked in kitchens to help feed homeless teens in the community, and devised an advocacy and awareness plan to increase understanding of teen homelessness in the urban area. Juniors work as interns in public policy programs of their choosing in the area, and seniors create a final thesis of individual research leading to a public policy platform that is similar to a short dissertation. Student theses

are presented to teachers, administrators, and community stakeholders, and the theses deemed most advanced are presented to an audience consisting of a large group of community stakeholders at a symposium in an area theater.

While public policy is a driving force in the Morningside Schools, another very large area of focus is social mobility for its students through enrollment in and completion of college. To graduate from a Morningside High School, a student must be accented into a college. However, many students at the Morningside Schools are operating below grade level, and nearly all Morningside School students are not college ready, according the data from the Partnership for Assessment of Readiness in College and Careers (PARCC) assessments given by the Morningside Schools in 2017. This data suggests that less than 8% of Morningside students are college ready in English and only 17% read on grade level, and less than 2% are college ready in mathematics. Since so many Morningside students require additional support to become ready for college, many of Morningside's resources and time go into remediating students and providing teachers with professional development to help support the mission of preparing students for college while also incorporating the public policy element.

The Morningside Schools' focus both on helping struggling students and on real-world application of learning align with the purpose of this study of understanding how effective teachers use primary source documents to teach struggling readers. 2017 PARCC data suggests that only 17% of Morningside high school students read on grade level, yet Morningside curriculum includes primary source documents that are both historical and current to support the public policy element of its curriculum. The Morningside administration understands this problem and devotes much of its professional development to increasing proficiency in reading. Every Friday, students leave 3 hours early, and teachers participate in professional development

designed to give students the tools to boost reading and math proficiency. History teachers have an instructional coach at both the school and district level, and specific professional development for history teachers regarding teaching of primary sources and reading difficult texts is provided frequently. Every quarterly performance task in history focuses on use of primary source documents, both historical and current, in creating their public policy platform on the topic at hand. Thus, teachers working at the Morningside Schools will have knowledge of strategies for using primary source documents with struggling readers and will be using primary source documents on a regular basis.

Selection of Participants

Teachers participating in this study have two criterion. First, teachers must work with populations of students identified as struggling readers. Because I did not have access to individual student and teacher records, teachers working with this population were identified by standardized test data that indicates that at least half of the students in the school are below reading expectations. Because of geographic accessibility for me, the test chosen to indicate reading expectations is the Partnership for Assessment for Readiness in College and Careers (PARCC) Assessments given nationwide. To indicate access to struggling readers, the state Public Charter School Board in which the Morningside Schools are a member reported that the 2016-2017 school year PARCC scores indicated that both Morningside high schools demonstrated that 83% were below the “Approached Expectations” benchmark that indicates an age-appropriate reading level.

Second, teachers must have experience teaching World History with primary source documents. Teachers must be skilled teachers, which was measured by years of experience. While quality of teaching is not guaranteed to correlate with years of experience, the nature of a

wisdom of practice study a researcher looks veterans in a given field who use their experience and expertise to hone their craft. While the concept of finding a veteran and observing their successes seems obvious, a wisdom of practice study can help to deeper understand the phenomenon of success within a classroom. In this situation, teachers needed at least three years of experience. In the Morningside Schools, teacher turnover is very high. In the 2014-2015, 28 teachers left the Parkview High School campus of the Morningside Schools before the Thanksgiving holiday, which means that finding veteran teachers in the Morningside Schools system can often be daunting.

To address the need of having teachers experienced with using primary source documents, the choice of the Morningside Schools should be addressed. The purpose of the Morningside Schools is to teach students how to evaluate problems in their community and to create public policy impacting those problems, which by nature requires a knowledge of understanding primary source documents. Students consistently engage in projects evaluating local policies, which means they look at local ordinances, business contracts, rules and regulations, and conduct their own research. The Morningside Schools also follow the graduation requirements set in place by the State Board of Education, which includes two years of World History, taken in freshman and sophomore year. Because students at the Morningside Schools will need a deep understanding of reading primary source documents as part of the school's public policy focus, the freshman and sophomore World History classes are deeply entrenched with studying primary source documents. Throughout the school year, history teachers in the Morningside Schools attend a variety of workshops designed to help them teach primary source documents. A teacher of World History at either of the two Morningside Schools high school campuses would have both a wealth of understanding of strategies to teach primary

source documents in World History as well as a wealth of understanding of strategies to teach struggling readers, as the PARCC scores mentioned previously indicate a substantial amount of readers below grade level.

Wineburg & Wilson (2001) note that they interviewed and observed 11 different teachers in their wisdom of practice study, but only two were highlighted in their Models of Wisdom article. I plan to operate in a similar manner. Because the Morningside Schools system only includes two high schools, the largest number of World History teachers available at the time of research is five.

Data Collection

After finding participants for this study, I collected data on their teaching methods. Data was gathered through interviews, observations, and documents. By having multiple forms of data, I was able to triangulate the data to determine consistency and validity of my findings (Yin 2014).

Interviews

I used interviews as one method of gathering data. Two interviews per participant took place. The first interview took place prior to the lesson to help me understand the teacher's process of creating a lesson for struggling readers using primary sources as well as the teacher's methods for evaluating the success of the lesson. The second interview was conducted to help me to better understand the lesson, the teacher's perception of the lesson, and to clarify any questions remaining. The purpose for the interviews is to understand how the teacher approaches the research questions for the study holistically, not just in the moment of the lesson. Additionally, I used interviews to learn about the participants' teaching styles and expertise in teaching primary source documents. The research questions for this study are:

1. How do World History teachers teach struggling readers to understand the complex vocabulary and concepts associated with primary source documents at the beginning of the school year?
2. How do World History teachers evaluate the effectiveness of their instruction on the use of primary source documents with struggling readers?
3. How do World History teachers perceive their effectiveness of their instruction on the use of primary source documents with struggling readers, and what evidence do they have to support this perception?

Interviews were guided by these research questions despite being conversational in nature. In order to address the research questions, I created an interview guide containing several open-ended questions. Interview guide questions included:

1. Tell me about your use of primary source documents in your World History classroom.
2. How do you begin when planning a World History lesson using primary source documents?
3. How do you select primary source documents for your students?
4. What do you do to combat problems students have with any complex vocabulary or foreign words in the primary source?
5. How do you know if your lesson worked?

Additionally, I included clarifying questions or questions about unanticipated ideas that I need to understand in greater detail. The first interviews were roughly one half hour.

The second interviews were shorter and more informal. Because the purpose of the interview was to clarify questions regarding the lesson, and the interview itself was largely based around questions pertaining to the observed lesson, an interview guide was not created.

With permission of the participants, interviews were recorded to preserve all ideas discussed during the interview. Additionally, I took notes during the interview in order to capture my reaction to interviewee responses as well as to keep the pace of the interview (Merriam, 2009). I kept post-interview notes in order to monitor the process of data collection as well as to begin to reflect upon and analyze the data.

Direct Observation

Direct observations are critical to case study "because a case study should take place in the real-world setting of the case" (Yin, 2014). The purpose of classroom observations is to record teacher behavior as it happens in order to get a holistic understanding of how expert World History teachers teach struggling readers using primary source documents. A description by the teacher of methods, strategies, and planning process is only one part of a lesson; the execution of the lesson by the teacher contains crucial data. A great many factors impact the success of a particular lesson on a particular day, and without direct observation, I would have been unaware of those factors. As said by Wineburg & Wilson (2001), "expert knowledge of content is not the sole determinant of good teaching…it may be their very ability to alternate between different modes of teaching that earns…the distinction 'wise practitioner.'" In order to truly understand the teaching strategies used in a lesson, the lesson itself must be observed.

I observed each participating teacher deliver one lesson multiple times, and I observed a second lesson for each teacher as well. For purposes of organization and continuity in the study, the lesson observed multiple times is the one described in the study. Each observation included a complete lesson teaching struggling readers using primary sources in the World History classroom from beginning to end, as described by the teacher. Because every lesson did not always fall neatly into one class period, observations were limited by my ability to see multiple

days of lessons in a row. I observed two lessons from each teacher within a two week time span, and each lesson was observed at least twice. Additionally, participating teachers had some time constraints, either because they only teach one World History class to struggling readers or because of other outside forces. For example, one teacher's observations of the second lesson were cut short because of an on-campus emergency. Both teachers were unable to get to the culminating point of their lesson in at least one observation because the teacher spent a lot of time on the lesson itself, which is common in many classrooms. Because I am a working teacher myself, I experienced some obstacles to finding multiple times to observe during first months of the school year. Wineburg & Wilson (2001) addressed the concern of describing an observation of just one class period in their *Models of Wisdom* study as well, referencing other lessons of Jensen and Price that informed Wineburg & Wilson's understanding of Jensen and Price as expert teachers but were not conducive to inclusion in their study. Keeping in mind the constraints and variables involved in obtaining observation, I used the participating teacher's description of a complete lesson to guide my understanding of the lesson's course and end. This allowed me to understand the context of the lesson and the teaching.

As an observer, I attempted to be as unobtrusive as possible, acting in an observer as participant role (Merriam, 2009). I introduced myself and my purpose to the class, but I participated in a peripheral manner, putting the observation itself first. I found an inconspicuous spot in the room in which the teacher can be observed, in both cases in the teacher's desk at the back or side of the room. When I was present at the Parkview High School campus, I found a part of the room in which I was visible from the hallway so as to not distract any of my previous students and potentially disrupt the lesson. I taught freshmen at the Parkview High School campus of the Morningside Schools, who were seniors at the time of observation and thus should

not have been in attendance in any of the World History courses. I was surprised to find two former students in Briana Markham's sophomore World History 2 class. I greeted them at the start of class, asked how they were doing, and explained why I was there. After about one minute of conversation, they went to their seats and did not speak to or of me throughout the lesson.

Data collection took place following a note taking protocol established by me in advance. Initial data was be collected by taking extensive raw notes throughout the course of the observation. Immediately after the observation, I created an audio recording of my reflections of the observation in order to gather initial thoughts as quickly as possible after the observation as well as to gain a more accurate portrayal of my thoughts, as the stream of consciousness recorded allowed me to be more candid and less formal in articulating my ideas than when I type them (Merriam, 2009). By including both raw notes taken in the moment as well as the immediate reflections of the observation, I developed a highly descriptive account of the observation. These notes and recordings were transcribed into full notes of each observation.

Documents

Finally, I used the documents created by the teacher for use in the lesson as a third form of data. Yin (2014) describes documents as a crucial element in any case study, as documents can corroborate and augment information from other sources. Documents can also help to clarify certain points and to raise additional questions. The purpose of including documents in this case study is to better understand the planning, execution, and assessment of the lesson.

Documents used in this scenario may vary and include a variety of items. First, I included any formally written lesson plans the teacher has created to better understand the planning, execution, and assessment outline the teacher has provided. Additionally, any

instructional tool used by the teacher to execute the lesson was included as a document, such as videos, presentations (such as PowerPoint), notes given to students, the agenda and objective written on the board, or other documents not anticipated. Finally, documents included all materials given to the students, including the primary source(s) used in the lesson or any other handouts.

To better evaluate the documents, I developed a list of questions to be used in evaluating the documents, as adapted from Meriam (2009):

1. Who is the creator of this document?

2. If the teacher did not create the document, how did the teacher obtain the document?

3. If the teacher did not create the document, did the teacher modify the document, and if so, how was the document modified?

4. How did I obtain this document?

5. What is the purpose or use of this document?

6. What is the author trying to accomplish with this document?

7. For whom was the document intended?

Developing protocols for the documents themselves was necessary to evaluate all documents in a similar fashion as well as to better understand the nature of the lesson as a whole. Understanding the choice of historical primary source(s) within the lesson guided my understanding of teaching methods with struggling readers of World History. For this reason, I evaluated the historical primary source(s) differently, including questions such as:

1. How did the teacher modify the historical primary source for use in the lesson?

2. What is the purpose of the teacher in using this historical primary source?

3. How was this historical primary source used in the lesson?

The data used by these documents enabled me to triangulate my findings from the interviews and observations and provide stability (Merriam, 2009). Documents were seen as "objective" sources of information in that I cannot alter them. My presence will not change the content or message of the documents. The documents also provided guidance in categorizing my data.

Analysis

As in most case studies, the analysis of data was ongoing, as some of the study emerged organically. To manage the data, I used NVivo, a digital data collection tool, to organize, sort, and categorize data. NVivo allowed me to store data from a variety of resources, including word processing documents, pictures, audio files, and video files. Once data was stored in NVivo, I created categories (called Nodes), which were arranged into maps or hierarchies to help me see connections. Advantages to using a digital platform such as NVivo include easy access to all information related to the research, the ability to manage and code large amounts of data, and an automated text search query process that allows me to quickly analyze large amounts of text for particular themes, keywords, and categories. NVivo guided me as I analyze this data because analysis of this data will be recursive. As I transitioned from the interviews to the observations, I looked for patterns and differences between the participants in this attempt to determine how these teachers create success in analyzing primary source documents in World History with struggling readers. The automated processes enabled by NVivo allowed me to better analyze the data in real time. I categorized my data based on my research questions and grouped it together for better analysis with each participant and after all work with participants was concluded. I then recategorized some parts of my first research question, as there were many different patterns of data, as will be explained in chapter four. After analyzing the emergence of patterns or

differences, I was able to explain some ways effective teachers of struggling readers in World History classes teach the understanding of primary sources and develop implications for further research or practice.

Validity

Since I had multiple sources of data, I completed triangulation. Merriam (2009) describes triangulation as a process in which multiple sources of data are compared in order to ensure accuracy in data. Triangulation ensures validity and reliability in that it provides multiple perspectives with which to interpret data. Should the data be in different forms but provide similar conclusions, it is likely the conclusions are valid.

To ensure internal validity, my participants had the option to participate in member checking. In member checking, the participants are able to provide feedback on my findings in order to ensure that they can recognize their experience through my interpretation (Merriam, 2009). Member checks took place throughout the course of the study so that participants had the opportunity to suggest edits to my interpretation in order to better represent the data. While the interpretation was in my words, participants were able to see their experiences reflected in those words.

Reflexivity and subjectivity

While Merriam describes the researcher experience in observations as "exhausting…everyone and everything is new," this situation was be both new and familiar to me, and I was careful to be aware of how my own personal experience impacts what I see in front of me (Merriam, 2009, p.123). Lincoln, Lynham, & Guba (2011) describe reflexivity as a process which "forces us to come to terms not only with our choice of research problem and with those with whom we engage in the research process, but with ourselves and with the multiple

identities that represent the fluid self in the research setting" (p. 183). Accurate data collection and representation of this data involved me engaging in that reflexivity process. While observing within the Morningside Schools, I had to maintain awareness of my emotions and of my previous experiences and how those emotions and experience shape my perception of the data. To increase awareness of these subjective feelings, I tracked those emotions as part of my notes and data collection. Glesne (2011) argues that tracking emotions throughout the research process helps the researcher to understand not only how your emotions impact the data collected but also how those emotions shape who you are as a researcher and the story being told by the research. Inquiring into my own bias and perspectives enlightened not only the research but also my own understanding of the world.

The Morningside Schools were chosen for this study because of my familiarity with the professional development regarding teaching primary source documents and reading skills to struggling readers in order to support the mission of the schools to engage students in public affairs. However, as a former employee of the Morningside Schools, I came in with preconceived notions as to the schools' culture, which carried weight during observations.

My experience at the Morningside Schools was overwhelmingly negative. I sought out the Morningside Schools for their focus on social justice and for their incorporation of historical primary sources with modern topics. I had previously worked in suburban schools, but I believed that my success in teaching struggling readers within those schools would translate into success in an inner city school aligned with my beliefs and methods. Despite my fervent belief in the schools' mission and vision, I struggled with many problems common in inner-city schools. Administrators and teachers joined and left the staff nearly every week. This revolving door of staff caused a lack of consistency in school procedures, which led to erratic changes in the daily

schedule, curriculum, school rules, and disciplinary actions. The struggle for funding left the school unable to provide many basic needs for students and for teachers, such as adequate supplies, textbooks, technology, or even substitute teachers. In the last quarter of the school year, no substitute teachers were hired due to a lack of funding, and teachers worked as substitutes during every planning period with no additional pay. Because circumstances in the school were so difficult, several teachers were absent every day. In March of the year I worked at Morningside, the Morningside Schools' CEO came to Parkview Middle and High School to address the teacher attendance problem, where she was informed by a teacher that the school was such a terrible place to work that nobody wanted to come in. I left the Morningside Schools after one year.

The year I taught at the Morningside Schools left me frustrated and impotent. I had previously believed that if struggling schools had better teachers, the myriad problems surrounding them will be less important, and the students in those schools would have a greater chance. After my year in the Morningside Schools, I felt that the problems facing those struggling schools and the students within them were insurmountable. Additionally, I began to question my own teaching methods, as my previous work in suburban districts had earned me many accolades, but my work at the Morningside Schools consistently earned me poor scores on evaluations. I was assigned an instructional coach to help me improve, and still, I left daily feeling defeated.

The reason I chose to study excellent teachers of World History who use primary source documents with struggling readers is that I am a World History teacher who works with primary source documents and struggling readers. Prior to working at the Morningside Schools, I spent 8 years teaching World History in a district in which students had to write a standardized

document based essay and receive a passing score in order to graduate. Some of those experiences are detailed in Chapter 1. I currently teach special education and English language learners and use primary sources with them as well as in my AP World History classes, where I use many of the same strategies to improve comprehension of primary source documents as I use with struggling readers. My own interest and abilities with primary source documents must be noted as I research, as my own personal choices may be different from the choices of the teachers I observe. I must be careful to learn from the expert teachers rather than to critique them.

Awareness of the emotions I have prior to observing at Morningside Schools, particularly the Parkview campus, and my own experiences teaching World History to struggling readers using primary source documents is necessary to understanding the data collected. In addition to the audio logs I created after each observation, it is important that I ask myself questions throughout the data collection and analysis process. Glesne (2009) suggests the following questions when considering reflexivity:

- What do I think I know, and how did I come to know it?
- What values and experiences shape my perspectives and my research decisions?
- What data to I choose to include? What data do I choose to omit? Why?
- With what voice to I share my perspectives?
- How much do I inscribe into the text and how to I present myself when I do?

The remainder of the study is organized into two chapters. Chapter 4 includes a discussion of the data collected. Chapter 5 contains a summary of the study, conclusions, recommendations for teachers based on the findings of the study, and recommendations for further research. The study concludes with appendices and works cited.

4. RESULTS

As discussed in chapter 1, in this study, I examine in detail how teachers of struggling readers use primary source documents to teach World History. This chapter is organized in a manner similar to Wineburg and Wilson's (1991) models of wisdom in the teaching of history. I describe the philosophy and pedagogy of two World History teachers from the Parkview High School campus of the Morningside Schools, Jeremy Blye and Briana Markham. Jeremy Blye taught World History 1, a course for freshman that addressed the years 600 CE to 1800 CE. Briana Markham taught World History 2, a course for sophomores that addressed the years 1800 CE to the present. Next, I address the research questions of the study. The research questions associated with the study are:

1. How do World History teachers teach struggling readers to understand the complex vocabulary and concepts associated with primary source documents at the beginning of the school year?
2. How do World History teachers evaluate the effectiveness of their instruction on the use of primary source documents with struggling readers?
3. How do World History teachers perceive their effectiveness of their instruction on the use of primary source documents with struggling readers, and what evidence do they have to support this perception?

Jeremy Blye, the Ringmaster

Jeremy Blye was a ninth grade World History 1 teacher at Morningside High School with six years of experience, all in Title I schools. Blye's deep desire to help students learn to read and think stemmed from his own personal experience in elementary and middle school. At an early age, Blye was diagnosed with a learning disability; simply put, teachers believed "[he] couldn't read." Blye could in fact read, but he could not read as fast as everyone else in his

classes. If he was given work to take home, he earned outstanding grades because he could take as long as he needed to, but when given work to complete in class, he explained that "what would take the average person to complete in 5 minutes, it would take me 20." When given tests to determine eligibility for special education services, they found that he could analyze at an exceptionally deep level when given the time he needed. In sixth grade, his social studies teacher pushed the administration to allow Blye to take honors level courses, despite his disability. Blye was initially upset at the change, but he was very successful, and his confidence soared. He credited the change this teacher made on his life as what made him want to be a teacher, why he loves history, and what drives him to help students improve their reading skills. Blye laughed while mentioning why this teacher inspired him so much, describing how the teacher used a (presumably fake) bayonet in class every day. A focus on boosting student confidence in reading and developing students' reading skills wove throughout Blye's pedagogy, as did a sense of humor and desire to push students beyond what others thought they were capable of performing.

Blye's teaching style was that of a circus ringmaster. In Blye's classroom, he put on a show, carefully planned to guide students through a variety of acts as they laughed, smiled, and built confidence in their own skills. Like a circus, the classroom had moments in which students gazed upon him, wondering what he would say next, and moments in which everyone was talking all at once. There was music, exotic locations, and even a moment after the primary source part of the lesson in which everyone threw wadded up balls of paper at another student, howling with laughter. It would be hard to leave Blye's classroom without being entertained.

Briana Markham, the Yoga Instructor

Although Briana Markham's classroom was just down the stairs from Blye's classroom, and many of their beliefs about teaching are the same, their backgrounds and demeanors could hardly be more different. Markham's myriad experiences in the world of urban education helped shape her beliefs about struggling readers and the use of primary sources. Before her role as World History 2 teacher at the Morningside Charter Schools' Parkview High School campus, Markham served as a public high school special education teacher, a director of special education for a charter elementary school, a dean of academics at a charter high school, and a motivational speaker. Nearly all of her teaching experience came from schools in the neighborhoods surrounding the Parkview campus of the Morningside Schools, so she was familiar with the demographics and characteristics of such students. She felt as though she is more sensitive to the needs of individual learners and of students with difficult behavior, and she planned her lessons so that many different learning styles are accommodated in every lesson.

Markham's experience in different roles outside the classroom shaped teaching philosophy and strategy significantly. She used her experience to set up her classroom in a manner that makes a variety of students comfortable, including sections for one larger group of students, several pairs, two smaller groups, and a handful of individual desks. In Markham's eyes, this arrangement allowed for the more collaborative students to work together, the quieter students who need to focus individually to work alone, and the students who want to work in smaller groups to have a quieter space. She also created simple behavior systems in her class. She explained, "Even though they're in high school, they still respond to positive feedback, just like they still respond to stickers." She had four "levels" that define what the class environment should be at any given time. "The levels are just my expectation…to dissipate and cut down on

behavior [problems]." At the beginning of each segment of class, she told students what level that she expected students to follow. For example, level zero meant that students were expected to work silently and independently. A level three meant students should talk together and could be discussing a variety of topics. Most common in Markham's class was level one—students could choose to work together, but conversation should be limited to the assignment and documents in front of them.

Briana Markham was the yoga instructor. Her classroom environment was calm, reflective, and challenging. While Markham constantly guided the class through each portion of the lesson, students spent significant amounts of time engaged in their work and answering questions as a part of their tasks. Markham modeled good reading behaviors for students who needed additional guidance, as a yoga instructor shows a class how to do a pose, but she also provided opportunities for students to work in their own ways, as a good yoga instructor describes extensions and ways to make a pose more challenging. Markham carried herself in a way that commanded attention, but she never spoke loudly or raised her voice. She talked quietly and calmly in front of the class, even when students were misbehaving, and she had an infectious positivity without being overtly bubbly. Around her classroom, motivational quotes such as "Nothing worth having comes easy" and inspirational song lyrics from artists like Jay Z were posted all over every wall. Markham used her peaceful, encouraging demeanor as a way to make her classroom a space safe for students to wrestle with challenging ideas and texts. Markham also prompted students to engage in self-reflection, an essential part of any yoga class.

Question 1: How do World History teachers teach struggling readers to understand the complex vocabulary and concepts associated with primary source documents at the beginning of the school year?

Blye and Markham both planned their lessons with a similar pattern. Both teachers started their lessons using visuals as a way to activate prior knowledge, draw student interest, and build student confidence in analysis. Next, each teacher ensured that students had enough background knowledge to understand the primary source document by providing notes or a secondary source reading. The teachers then modeled effective reading of primary source documents, then provided time for individual practice of reading primary source documents. This section of the chapter will address each component of the lesson.

Use of visuals

Both Blye and Markham started their lessons using visuals as a way to activate prior knowledge, draw student interest, and build student confidence in analysis. Blye used his own travel pictures to engage students and to build rapport with them. Blye's lessons started with travel pictures, as he visited 70 countries and all 50 states, despite being only 27 years old at the time of data collection for this study. He used his travel experiences to help frame how his students understand World History. As students asked questions, they began to access prior knowledge they may not have otherwise known they had, and he gently pushed students to analyze the pictures in a safe way. Blye used pictures and other artifacts from these travel experiences while teaching to help his students build their cultural capital, to develop confidence in regards to analyzing unknown sources, to preview the lesson ahead and provide context for students, and to create a sense of camaraderie in his classroom. In his interview, Blye described his beliefs on analyzing visuals:

> Analyzing and understanding an image, I realized, is very close to analyzing and understanding documents, because, to be honest, images don't necessarily connect to what they understand in their own culture or their own experiences, so being able to see [these images] and recognize them, and being able to differentiate what they see [using their own experiences]…builds confidence.

He provided an example that in the first day of the unit he was teaching during his observations, Islam, he spent 30-45 minutes looking at over 20 different images from his travels, trying to help them to understand what was happening in the picture using their own context. Speaking as though he were a student, Blye said,

> I see that person is wearing a lot of white clothing. Well, you know, I wear white when it's hot out because it seems to be cooler…they go through different explanations and start putting things together. They realize that they know a lot, even though at first, they're afraid to [apply it]…it really builds up their confidence.

In his interviews, Blye did not mention student engagement as a purpose for his use of visuals to begin his lessons. However, Blye's use of visuals served to grab the attention of his students. When Blye stepped to the front of the room and announced that it was time for "Embarrassing photos of Mr. Blye," the class fell silent, seemingly excited for the lesson ahead. Blye was dynamic and charismatic, using his personal experiences to create an accessible learning environment for students. His carefully chosen pictures from his many trips to the Middle East were a combination of entertaining personal pictures—"Here, I'm kissing a camel. This is my mom's favorite photo; she loves it!"—and pictures that emphasize a point he uses later in the lesson, such as a picture of the Dome of the Rock in Israel juxtaposed with panorama of the city of Jerusalem to show the significance of the building in the landscape. He clarified

words for students to help them understand if they had a limited vocabulary, showing a picture of the Suez Canal and explaining the "very large barges—very large boats." Mr. Blye also asked questions of the students, prompting them to explore and analyze the images themselves, an important component of his pedagogy surrounding primary source documents. By giving students an accessible visual that they themselves can interpret and ask questions of, he built their confidence with the curriculum, giving them more confidence when they turn to something complicated, such as the primary source documents they analyzed about Islam later in the lesson.

Markham began class daily in a similar manner: she used visuals related to the topic to help students access the material in a way that was familiar to them. However, Markham does not use travel pictures of herself, and Markham's demeanor in the classroom and in person was calm, quiet, and relaxed. She selected visuals for her lesson based on their relevance, accessibility, and relatability to the students. When students looked at an image, they applied the same process they would later use with primary source documents. Markham asked students to first look at the author and date the image was created, then look holistically at the image and develop a general description of the image, then to end by interpreting the meaning of the image. When students later encountered a challenging text, they understood what steps to follow.

Having taught both World History 1 and World History 2, Markham said finding compelling visuals that hook students into the lesson is much easier task in World History 2, which starts in the mid-1800's at the Morningside Schools, than it is for World History 1, which starts in 600. The amount of visuals available, as well as the relative familiarity that comes with looking at a visual from 200 years ago versus 1300 years ago, allowed Markham to have a variety of options. She wanted "not just to attention grab…but for students to actually see" the world during the time period she was teaching. For example, in one lesson introducing the

Industrial Revolution, the starting point for Markham's World History 2 course, Markham chose two images showing life in pre-industrial England and two showing life in post-industrial England. The images she selected for each time period were dramatically different and gave students a very clear idea of what life would have been like at this point. Choosing images to illustrate a time period also allowed Markham to set a common experience for all students. Markham said,

> The other thing I think about, not only just [students but also adults], if I say something about an area that's rural, your definition of rural might be different from my definition. It gives them a clear cut view—no factories and cities [in pre-industrial England] to factories and cities [in post-industrial England].

When planning a lesson using primary sources for her Morningside students, Markham planned with the end in mind. First, she asked herself, "What do I want students to get out of the lesson today?" Then, she looked for pictures and documents to help her build the answer those questions. She used a lot of pictures from local universities and museums, as access to those archives and resources are readily available to Morningside teachers for no fee, but she also used images from less academic sources, such as History.com or even memes to relate to students. Her goal in finding visuals was to find something easy to see and interpret, or as she described it, a "clear cut visual image." In Markham's mind, students should not have to struggle to interpret the visual in her class because the image is blurry, has too many figures to focus on, or is otherwise visually compromised. Student frustration was a concern for Markham, coming from her special education background, and she wanted students to build confidence rather than to encounter unnecessary challenges because she selected a visual students could not access. Markham also addresses student frustration in her selection of primary source documents.

Students arriving to Markham's class gathered papers near the door, then took their seats to answer the following questions regarding the image below, projected onto the whiteboard.

1) Describe what you see in the image.
2) Explain how the Industrial Revolution was for the working class. How were they treated?
3) Who made the profit?

Figure 4.1. Political cartoon used in Markham's class depicting the plight of workers during the Industrial Revolution

When the bell rang to begin class, she asked students, "What is the first thing we should always do when looking at an image?" Student hands shot up in the air, with one student calling out, "Title and date!"

"Yes," Markham responded, walking over to the whiteboard, writing a plus sign on the board, and placing the student's name below the plus sign. "Why?" Students provided a list of reasons as Markham praised them and wrote their names below the plus sign: "Make sure the

source is accurate!", "determine whether it is primary or secondary!", "learn what it might be about!", "to see the time period!"

"Now," Markham asked, "What is the next thing?" Students were a bit quieter here, so she told them, "Look at what you see first, then try to find any messages." She directed students to take five minutes to answer the questions on the board using what they saw and set a timer on her phone. For the next five minutes, students alternated between looking at the board and writing down ideas on their papers as Markham circulated the room, redirecting off task students and providing direction to students who appeared confused. Slow hip-hop music played quietly in the background. When Markham announced that students had one minute left, students began calling out to her: "I know what this is about!", "Let me do number three!", "No, I go first, let me do it!"

The five minute timer rang, and Markham announced, "Okay, we are done, we are focused. I have four volunteers to answer the Do Now for today." She then asked the first volunteer to tell him what she saw when she saw the image. The student said, "I see a man being crushed by low wages." Markham said,

> See, now you're analyzing. Sometimes we analyze wrong if we go too fast, so let's first list what we see. We're not going to analyze the picture. We are just doing describing, then we'll work our way up to analyzing.

The class got very excited by the idea of describing, and everyone began to talk at once, clamoring to give their ideas. Markham waited for about thirty seconds for the noise to quiet, then returned to the original student responding.

"What do you see?" Markham asked.

"I see a man…" the student replied.

"What is the man dressed like?" Markham pushed forward.

"I don't know," the student responded hesitantly.

"What does he have on? Which man are we talking about?" Markham implored.

The student said, "The tall one. He has on a suit."

"What else do you see?" Markham asked, and the class as a whole began calling out ideas. While one student repeatedly responded, "I see Teddy Grahams!" the other students began calling out ideas. One student asked, "What's Pullman?", which began a litany of other questions about other words on the cartoon, such as capitalism and monopoly.

Markham explained, "Pullman is a company that made things for railroads in the 1800's. The other words are words we're learning about next week. So we've got these other words that are going around on this wheel. Let's move to number two."

The student who had volunteered to give his answer for the second question (Explain how the Industrial Revolution was for the working class. How were they treated?). He said, "The working class…so basically, this picture explains that they weren't getting paid enough to pay for the rent, for their house. So, like, they making their bills higher, so they can't afford to pay their rent. That put them out the house, so richer people might buy their house."

Markham praised the student and asked if anyone wanted to add on to what the student said. When no student responded, she asked, "Let's look at the picture. In the picture, between the two, who made the profit?" Students called out: "The mayor!" "Did you say mayor? Who is the mayor?" "The, the, the, uh…Pullman!"

Markham responded, "Yes, Pullman made the money. So, what assumption or what inference can we make about the Industrial Revolution when it comes to the people?"

A number of students called out, "It was a bad thing."

"Okay," Markham said, "Was it a bad thing for everyone?"

Many students responded, "Yes," but one student said, "Not for the business people."

"Were the business people the majority or the minority?" Markham asked. The class agreed that they were the minority, and Markham said,

> So what we're going to be doing today is we're going to give you more of an introduction to the Industrial Revolution. Then, next week, we're going to really get into this idea of capitalism and communism, what those two words mean, and how that impacted women and children's working conditions. Okay? Now, let's finish the Do Now. So what does this represent?

In both cases, Blye and Markham used the visual sources to build student confidence and introduce content in areas where students may be unfamiliar. In making the unfamiliar visible, Blye and Markham opened students' eyes and provided valuable context to their learning that class period.

Blye and Markham both mentioned student confidence and frustration in their initial interviews, showing a desire to help students to develop enough emotional and intellectual fortitude to push through challenging texts. Their use of visuals to open the lesson allowed students in both classes to access the content in a less intimidating way. While visuals did not factor into my literature review, the importance of visual sources in historical thinking research and literature is well-documented. Wineburg, Martin, and Monte-Santo (2011) explain that "Using visual sources is invaluable to the process of history inquiry. Even students struggling with written sources can productively [analyze visual sources]." Nearly every lesson in the Stanford History Education Group's catalog includes visual sources. Lesh (2011) implied that it was the responsibility of a history teacher to ensure that visual sources were included in an

analysis of primary source documents so that students learn to use the skills necessary to analyze both text and visual sources interchangeably, a process used in both Blye and Markham's class.

Content-area literacy research advocates pre-reading strategies as an effective way to boost student reading comprehension (Key 2010, Massey 2004, Ogle 2007). Blye and Markham's use of visuals to introduce content qualify as a pre-reading strategy. Pre-reading strategies pique student interest, evoke relevant prior knowledge, and guide students to anticipate a text, allowing them to more easily access the material and develop new ideas. Blye and Markham's use of visuals combined with their consistent invocation for students to always look at the source before reading set the stage for students to access a document's content before beginning to read it.

Introduction of historical content

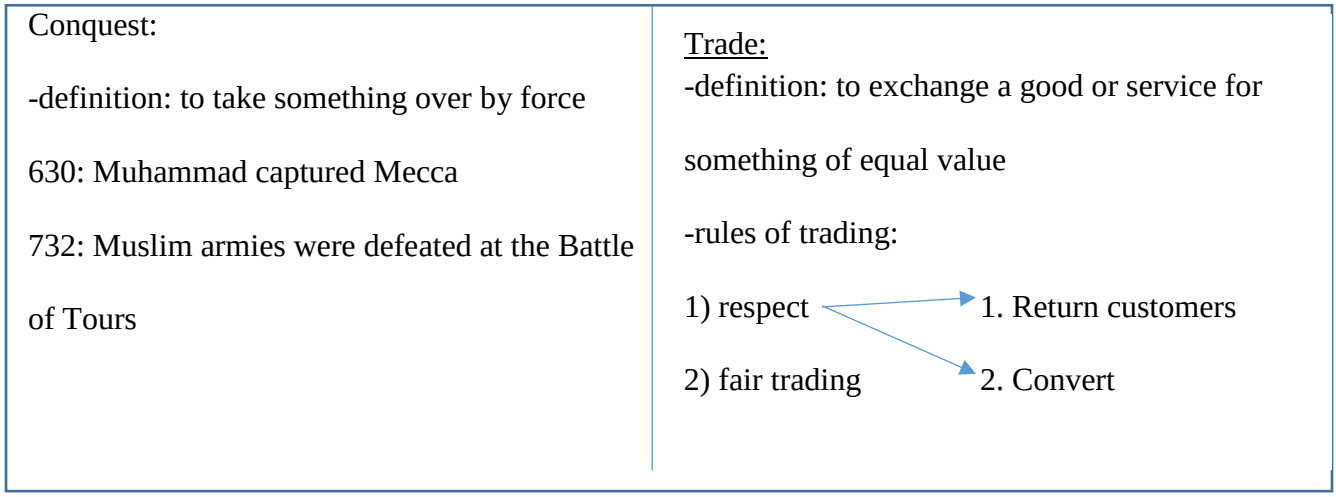
Once Blye and Markham chose their topics for each lesson, they then set about how to introduce the content necessary to understanding the primary source documents that made up the bulk of the lesson. Blye chose a more direct form of instruction, using a lecture and short video to provide students with a background on the spread of Islam. Markham elected to use a secondary source reading about the Industrial Revolution, allowing her to model an annotation strategy on the secondary source prior to introducing students to the primary source.

Blye's focus on fulfilling student emotional needs as part of their learning process required his lessons to be easily adjusted to the needs of each class period. To this end, Blye provided students with lecture notes by simply writing the key ideas and vocabulary words on the whiteboard as he talked, allowing Blye to adjust his lesson when necessary to accommodate the needs of a specific class. While Blye's travel pictures and primary source documents were previously selected, the flexibility in the lecture notes allowed him to make quick adjustments

for individual classes. He would supplement with greater detail when a class needed more background knowledge about the documents, encourage student questioning and curiosity, and include ideas that a previous class struggled with that Blye had not previously considered.

Blye's lecture notes consisted of him projecting a lined piece of notebook paper on the whiteboard, then writing what he wanted students to know on the paper to model the structure of the notes. Today's lesson was about conquest and trade in early Islam, so he made two columns on the board—one for conquest, one for trade. Below each column, he wrote a definition of each word, asking students to define the words for him, then clarifying or simplifying their responses to look much as they did in the last class period of the day.

Figure 4.2. Diagram of Blye's lecture notes.



Although the notes looked slightly different in each class observed, the main points, such as vocabulary words, dates, and main ideas remained the same.

Both Blye and the students tied their discussion back to previous lessons, with Blye using much of the same candor and humor as he showed his travel pictures continued through the notes section. For example, Blye mentioned shahada, the Islamic declaration of faith, and asked students to explain what it was based on what they had learned in a lesson two days prior.

Another time, as Blye explained Muhammad's conquest of Mecca, a student raised his hand and said, "You said Muhammad didn't kill nobody!" Blye responded, "He didn't; he didn't have to" and described the conquest of Mecca to the student. Students also asked questions about basic vocabulary throughout, such as "Is trade like gambling?", reflecting Blye's explanation that his students were capable of understanding the basic ideas present in the primary source documents but may be unfamiliar with basic terms necessary to decode a document, such as trade. Blye's method of engaging students in the class through his personality and wit appeared to be helping students retain prior knowledge from the previous class as they transitioned to the primary source component of the lesson.

Lecture is often maligned as an ineffective method of teaching new content, but when done properly, it can result in achievement and knowledge gains. Tileston and Darling (2009) stated that teachers using explicit instruction effectively will help students to activate prior knowledge, use effective presentation skills to connect students to new information, and provide explicit feedback and reinforcement. Blye used this framework in the notes portion of his lessons. He frequently asked students questions to draw in their prior knowledge, both from previous classes and their lives as a whole. His use of praise throughout the class gave students immediate feedback, and his theatrics throughout the course of the presentation engaged students and encouraged them to make connections to new ideas as they asked questions and laughed along with Blye.

Markham introduced content for lessons through a secondary source. Because she used the secondary source as an opportunity to both introduce new content and explicitly model reading strategies, the discussion of Markham's content introduction is described in the next section.

Explicit modeling of reading strategies

Blye and Markham both explicitly modeled their process of reading for students at different points throughout the lesson. Literacy and historical thinking research has long advocated for modeling of text reading (Gallagher, 2004; Greenleaf, 2009; Harvey & Goudvis, 2007; Ogle, 2007; Perfetti, 2010; Voss, 2006; Wineburg, 2001), and Blye and Markham were both sure to include these processes in their lessons. By using their projectors to show students what they would do in taking notes, annotating texts, and answering questions, Blye and Markham showed students what effective readers do.

Markham used a secondary source about the Industrial Revolution to give her an additional opportunity to model her reading process for the students. During the lesson, several students volunteered to read portions of the secondary source aloud, and the class focused on an introductory reading about the Industrial Revolution with a diagonal instruction of "Highlight and Annotate the Text!" in the upper right corner (Appendix B). Before reading, many students got up and went to Markham's desk to fetch highlighters from a bucket. Markham reminded students,

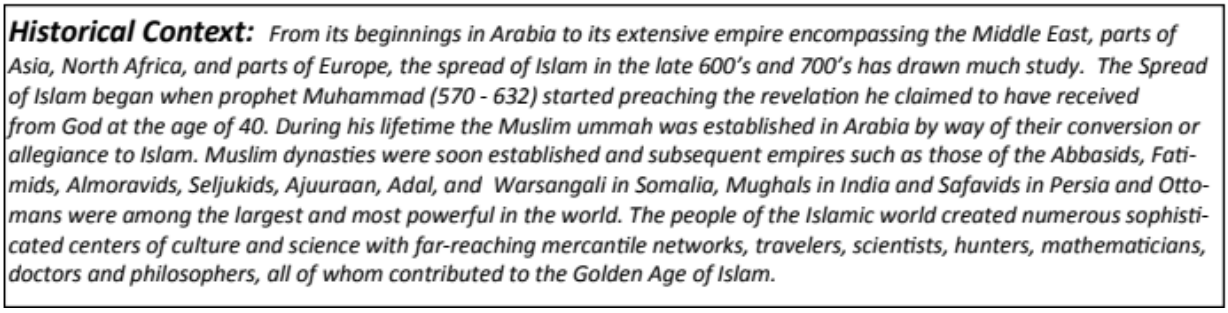
> While you are reading, you should be highlighting and annotating the text. If there are any words that you are unfamiliar with, you are circling them. You are writing any questions that you have or any times you have an 'A ha!' moment in the margins.

Volunteers read the document aloud as the rest of the class highlighted and annotated the text as they read. As students read aloud, Markham projected the document and wrote on the board as though she were a student annotating the document. She circled words she anticipated students would not understand, such as "textile." She asked questions of the text, such as such as "What is a textile mill?", and wrote any conclusions she made while reading the text on the

board. Some students followed Markham on the board, but most students focused on annotating their own paper. When students finished, Markham discussed her annotations, explained the words she had chosen as difficult, and asked if students had any questions.

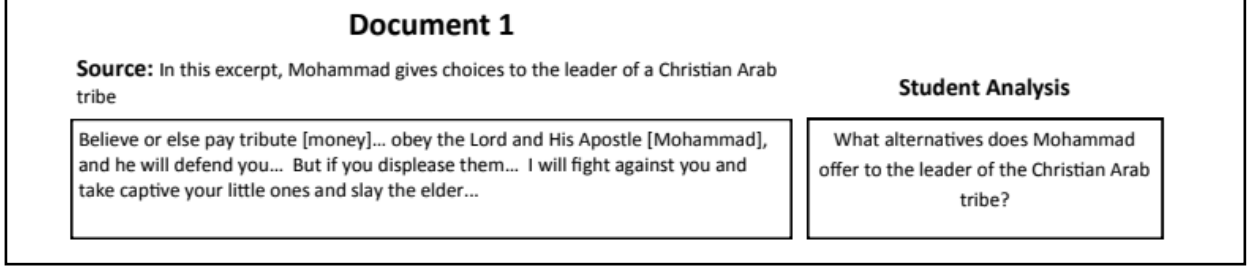
Blye demonstrated the process of reading primary source documents in a similar way. Blye posted the document based question (DBQ) on the front board while the students looked at the packet with the same question across the top—"How did Islamic civilization spread to encompass such a large empire?" This document is found in Appendix A. He explained to the students that it would be important to read the question first before reading the documents so that students knew what to read for, then began to break the question into smaller parts by asking students to help him define words such as spread, encompass, and empire. As he defined the words in the question, he wrote notes on the front board to show students how they should annotate their papers. Once students came to an agreement of what the question meant and what information would be necessary to answer the question, Blye then asked students to look at the next component of the packet, the historical context. Historical context paragraphs are a common component of DBQ questions, as they provide students with a brief synopsis of the immediate history surrounding the primary source documents. Markham's secondary source doubled as her historical context paragraph.

Figure.4.3. Historical context for Blye's DBQ assignment, written by Blye.


Historical Context: *From its beginnings in Arabia to its extensive empire encompassing the Middle East, parts of Asia, North Africa, and parts of Europe, the spread of Islam in the late 600's and 700's has drawn much study. The Spread of Islam began when prophet Muhammad (570 - 632) started preaching the revelation he claimed to have received from God at the age of 40. During his lifetime the Muslim ummah was established in Arabia by way of their conversion or allegiance to Islam. Muslim dynasties were soon established and subsequent empires such as those of the Abbasids, Fatimids, Almoravids, Seljukids, Ajuuraan, Adal, and Warsangali in Somalia, Mughals in India and Safavids in Persia and Ottomans were among the largest and most powerful in the world. The people of the Islamic world created numerous sophisticated centers of culture and science with far-reaching mercantile networks, travelers, scientists, hunters, mathematicians, doctors and philosophers, all of whom contributed to the Golden Age of Islam.*

Blye asked the students to turn the page as he adjusted the projector to reflect what students saw on their paper. He then explained that for the first two activities, he would help them as a class, but then students would need to analyze some documents on their own. Blye started to model the analysis of the first document in the packet, telling students, "First thing: always read where it comes from. Next thing: read the question on the side." The DBQ Blye used in class looked as it does below, with the excerpt students read on the left and a small question to the right to help guide student thinking.

Figure 4.4. Document 1 of Blye's DBQ, including student analysis questions written by Blye.



Blye began to read the document aloud, and as he read, students began to react to the words of the document. Upon finishing, a student blurted out, "Why would they do that? That is so evil!" He read through the document aloud again, paying no heed to the students' protest that "wait—wait—they would take the little ones and do what to them?" He directed students to answer the student analysis question to the right silently by themselves, promising to answer student questions after they had completed their task. Setting a timer on his cell phone, he gave students time to write their thoughts, even as the student continued to say, "but that is wild!"

After about a minute, Blye's phone timer went off to the tune of "Do You Want to Build a Snowman?" from the film Frozen. Feigning embarrassment, Blye exclaimed that he was horrified that they now knew his favorite song, and the class burst out laughing. Having effectively gotten student attention, he then asked for students to raise their hand and offer

answers to the question to the right of the document. Students offered their answers, and Blye praised students as they explained their thinking. He then addressed the concerns of the student upset by the document by asking students to dig deeper into the document and figure out why. Students provided a few ideas, such as "they already have two other choices besides [to die], so why wouldn't you just do [those things] instead?" and "they can make the little ones into slaves." Blye's prompting of students to slow down, to ask questions, and to use the document to answer the questions generated modeled expert reading practices.

This direct modeling of reading comprehension strategies, followed by an independent reading in which students used the strategies, allowed students to access the new material while showing students how to read a history-specific text. Comprehension strategies work best when a few strategies are taught, discussed, and practiced over time (Alvermann et al., 2013), which both Blye and Markham did throughout the lesson. The consistent focus on text and reading strategies throughout the class gave the lesson a consistent structure and set of expectations for students to understand while they learned essential content for the day's lesson.

Independent practice

Students in both classes could be seen using the strategies Blye and Markham modeled during segments of independent practice, with students in Markham's class eager to grab highlighters and students in Blye's class underlining and paraphrasing as Blye did on the board. The instructional approaches of thinking aloud demystified the reading comprehension process, enabling students to access difficult texts. Alvermann et al.(2013) explained, "When students are explicitly and systematically taught strategies for comprehending, teachers find noticeable improvement in achievement, critical thinking, self-confidence, and student-to-student interaction."

In both Blye and Markham's rooms, independent practice was a flexible arrangement dictated by a pre-set timer. For example, Blye told students upon completion of the modeling component of the lesson, they would analyze the third document by themselves. He then asked students what they should do first. They answered to look at the source, then he directed them to the question related to the document: "How does this writer describe the Muslim people?" Setting the timer on his phone, he gave them two minutes to read silently on their own and answer the question related to the document. Blye circulated around the room, wrote thank you notes and redirected students who were off task as he whispered "shhhh" under his breath.

Thank you notes were a unique part of Blye's pedagogy that he fulfilled during independent study. Mid-lesson, Blye grabbed a stack of small cards and fills them out as he continues his instruction, eventually handing out a few of the cards to various students around the room. Blye explained in his interview,

> I just write them when I see somebody doing something great, or I read something that they did, and I slip [the notes] in their binders. You watch these kids just light up because they get the instant gratification. 'Holy crow! I did a great job! And the way I know it is because Mr. Blye said it!'

Understanding that students struggle with the reading and analysis of primary source documents, Blye came up with a simple system to provide students the positive reinforcement that they need in real time.

When the timer began to sing the song from Frozen, students raised their hands to answer the question next to the document: "The author says they treat each other fairly." "The author thinks they are very loyal to their religion." Blye praised each student as they provided answers, then said "There's an answer hidden in the document that's very tough to get, and I haven't

heard anyone come close yet, but I think you can do it." Some hands dropped back to the desk, but a few students persisted, providing interpretations that sounded to be correct but not what Blye wanted. He told one student, "You've said it, but I don't think you understand what you said," then drew their attention to the whiteboard at the front where the document was projected and began annotating the first line of text, talking aloud as he wrote on the board to explain his thinking. Students then began to raise their hands and call out to explain the interpretation he was providing—that Muslims believe that they must be vigilant about religion in this world to go on to a better afterlife—and he praised the class for "being so smart."

Blye announced that for the next ten minutes, students were to pick at least two documents and answer the questions. Students could work individually or in pairs. He projected a timer for ten minutes, played some pop music, and students began to work as Blye walked around the room. As Blye patrolled the classroom, he gave out thank you notes to the students he thought deserved encouragement, reminded several students to stay on task, and asked questions about the documents.

In Markham's room, Markham transitioned from modeling the secondary source document to independent practice with a primary source document. She said, "Now that you've learned about what the Industrial Revolution is, we're going to learn about what it was like for people. The next page has a primary source. What's the first thing we do?" The class turned the page, calling out, "Title and date!" She praised them, then said, "So what is this?" Students were looking at an excerpt from Robert Southey's *Letters from England* (1807) (Appendix C).

"A letter!", several students said.

"Now look closely at it. What does it look like?" Markham asked.

After a few seconds of hesitation, a student said, "A conversation?"

Markham instructed,

> Yes, it does look a little like a conversation or an interview. So now, we're going to have you read this in groups or with your partner because this is like an interview. You might want to read it as dialogue. When you are done, you should answer the questions on the back. Don't forget to annotate throughout! I'm going to set a timer for 20 minutes. You should be at a level one.

Students began to read aloud to each other. As students read, Markham circulated around the room, sitting with groups who needed more help or redirection.

Text selection: modification

In both classrooms, the primary sources being used by students were carefully modified to suit the needs of struggling readers. Blye and Markham did this for two reasons: to reduce student frustration and to meet the needs of the lesson. Students were not made to read the Quran or Robert Southey's *Letters from England* in its entirety; they were asked to read segments of the text that were relevant to the curriculum, to student interest, or to the overarching theme of the lesson.

Markham saw student frustration with reading as a distraction that took away from what she saw as the real learning of the class—developing skills to transfer the reading, analysis, and synthesis of primary source documents into their own knowledge. To reduce student frustration, she carefully selected primary sources that were succinct or easily reduced to a small excerpt. If she wanted her struggling readers to use a variety of documents, she wanted the documents to be short so that they struggle with the process of using the documents together rather than struggle with understanding the document itself. When she did use longer documents, she chose documents that were easy to read and understand, as she felt her students would give up on

longer, more difficult documents. She divided up the longer documents into many short sections. For example, a one page letter describing the life of child laborers in an English factory was broken down into six sections of no more than three sentences, which offered struggling readers natural breaks to gather their thoughts. She also allowed students to wrestle more with a shorter text or a visual than she will with a longer text. She explained,

> Even as adults, if we have to struggle too much and too long, then it kind of just turns us off. Our brain turns off, and we're not as engaged. We have to go back, we forgot we were reading something, then we have to remember what we read.

To accommodate for student frustration, Blye adjusted his texts based on student reading level. Students chose sets of documents that are scaled by lexile level and question difficulty. All of the document sets have the same baseline document that the class worked through together, and the baseline document is often the most difficult document to build student confidence.

What Blye saw as a bigger challenge in world history primary source documents for struggling readers is that "primary and secondary sources too often are not written for people in the 9th grade" but rather for scholars. He joked that during the time many of the documents for his class, which ends in the year 1800, "the percentage of people who could read was about 1%, and even they didn't want to read this stuff." He also pointed out that much of the material read in history courses was not meant to be read hundreds of years later, so the lens through which Blye and his students see the world may not necessarily have a correlation to what these ancient scholars, officials, and leaders wrote. This caused Blye challenges in the classroom because, while he is very well traveled and educated, his students often have not left the metropolitan area in which the Morningside Schools are located. His students' exposure to other cultures of our

time was very limited, making it more difficult for him to guide their understanding of other time periods. As previously mentioned, Blye used his travel experiences to create a personal connection for students to attach to their learning to bridge this gap, but he admitted that the cultural proficiency necessary to analyze primary source documents at a high level was a challenge in teaching primary source documents to his struggling readers.

Text selection: difficult words associated with the World History class

Additionally, both Blye and Markham included relevant translations of strange words or definitions when possible, and at times, they both modified the translation or syntax to make the document more readable. Wineburg, Martin, and Monte-Sano (2011) explained the importance of both shortening and modifying the document for struggling readers. The reading and analysis process in itself is more significant for students than the understanding of every word of every document, and while teachers should not modify a document to change its meaning or purpose, students will benefit more from the close reading of an accessible source than fighting through a long, difficult, or irrelevant source for the source's sake.

In his classroom, Blye did not shy away from the challenging words and foreign translations found in many ancient world history texts. He said that when students struggled with foreign translations, particularly in terms of when syntax plays a role in translation, he guided students to try to figure out the main idea first. During the modeling portion of the lesson, explained such words as he saw them when students worked through their DBQs. In the DBQ on Islam, there were a large number of words in Arabic, a language that nearly all of Blye's students were unfamiliar with, and the prophet Muhammad's name was spelled differently three different times. When asked in his interview about this specific set of texts, Blye said, "It's pretty easy to explain…when we talk about Allah, Allah is the way they say God.

Well, Yahweh in Judaism…means god. We come to say it in our own ways, our own languages, and if you just talk about it, that makes it simple enough for them." As students participated in independent practice during the lesson, one student asked Blye why Mohammad was spelled differently than in previous documents students had examined. Blye explained that in different languages, names sound different, and it does not always translate into English very well. He then began speaking in French and pronounced his own and several class members' names in an exaggerated French accent. Students laughed, begged him to teach them French, then continued with their documents.

Similarly, Markham was careful to give students the tools they needed to figure out difficult words, translations, and syntax without just giving them the answers. She began the procedure she used with primary source documents with visuals at the beginning of the year. When students first encounter visuals in Markham's class, she asked them to look at the visual, explain the general feeling the visual gave them, describe what people are doing in the visual, and see if students could analyze or interpret the visual for themselves. If students struggled for a long time with an image, she would explain the visual to them, but she wanted them to use the visual to build confidence with the written documents. She later transfers that process to primary source documents as they build confidence and comfort with the course and its skills. Students would describe their general understanding of the document first, then use that general understanding to determine meaning.

Markham addressed the myriad problems of translation, foreign words, and awkward syntax in her classroom in a few ways. If a word does not directly translate into English or is otherwise completely foreign to students, she would provide a translation below the document to facilitate their understanding. Markham also allowed students to volunteer to read documents

aloud in class. Reading aloud allowed students who wanted positive attention from the teacher to feel validated, gave Markham an opportunity to correct misunderstandings as they occurred, and provided struggling readers an additional way to engage with the documents.

Markham also said that because her World History 2 course was more Euro-centric and contained more modern syntax than the World History 1 course, she ran into fewer problems with confusing translations, spellings of a word, or strange phrases. She did have to explain certain people, events, or companies, as shown previously in the chapter when Markham explained the Pullman Car Company. During the periods observed, students had very few questions about translations or syntax because the historical period studied, the Industrial Revolution, began in Britain. However, students who struggle to read often struggle with basic vocabulary, as evidenced by questions asked during Markham's lesson. As students finished their independent practice, Markham walked to the board and wrote, "How do power and wealth influence the Industrial Revolution?" When the timer sounded, Markham said, "We're running out of time, so below your Do Now on the back of your packet, I want you to do a quick write that answers this question. You will turn it in on the way out. What questions can I answer?" A student said, "What do you mean by power? Like electricity power?" The first reading the class had done referred to hydroelectric power. Markham said, "No, like power and control of people or resources," and students nodded. She said, "As you look forward to the next five minutes or so, think about on a global level how wealth and power made Britain powerful." Even seemingly familiar words posed problems for Markham's struggling readers, and she was careful to guide them to an answer.

Text selection: content

Although Blye and Markham's philosophy towards editing primary source documents and teaching students to understand foreign translations were similar, they chose documents in a very different sense relative to their content. Blye chose a variety of primary and secondary sources to make particular points for students based on the content of the day, while Markham chose documents that created an engaging and accessible lesson, then adapted her larger unit of content to fit those documents.

Blye wanted his documents to provide a more nuanced understanding of the content and of how authors present information. In one lesson on Islam, Blye's DBQ included documents from the Quran, a textbook, a European account of the Battle of Tours in 732, and scholarly articles. He exposed students to the idea of understanding the differences between primary and secondary sources during the first class. Blye provided examples of pictures of himself in costume at a Renaissance fair, then showed paintings from the Renaissance so that students understood the differences between claims made in a primary source document versus a secondary source document. Blye tailored his documents to fit the lesson as well. A later lesson on the Crusades contained letters from both Christian and Muslim leaders that used similar rhetoric to make their points, which Blye used to teach both content regarding the Crusades and rhetorical analysis.

To find documents supporting the topics Blye teaches, he scoured the internet, looking at previously created Document Based Questions (DBQs) and altering them for his students' needs and for the needs of the lesson. First, he chose the topic he wants to discuss based on his curriculum, popular culture, or current news, trying to find a central question for each day that is engaging and relevant to both the students and the content studied. He described his methods of

creating his own DBQs as "hodgepodge…maybe I like these five documents and the question from this DBQ, and these two documents here, and I like these other three but not these three…I may have retype everything to get it into the proper format…I like the format to be similar every single time." At the beginning of the year, Blye included questions that go with the documents to help guide their analysis, and as the year progresses, he began to remove the questions to guide students to analyze the documents themselves. Blye also created multiple sets of DBQs using multiple lexile levels and varying types of questions (or sometimes no questions at all). In his honors classes, he allows students to choose which set they would like to use. The trend he saw with having two sets of DBQs is that students start out all picking the set with questions and transition to choosing the documents without questions.

Markham was interested in making the learning process engaging and accessible to students instead of using a variety of sources to make a specific point. Rather than emphasize a certain idea or viewpoint, she focused on teaching the students to use the documents in authentic ways, such as developing an argument using evidence from multiple sources, and she picked documents that would allow students to be successful in that goal.

Markham's content drove her choice of documents in that she looked for documents that were both engaging and gave students a window into the time period being studied. If a document was engaging, students would be more likely to complete the difficult task of reading and analyzing the documents. For Markham, because she saw the material in World History 2 as more relevant and relatable than in World History 1, she believed it was her obligation to use that relatability to develop an understanding of the world, and she used documents to create that vision of both the historic and modern world. Because some of her students have never left the metropolitan area where the Morningside Schools were situated, she wanted her documents to

paint the picture of these foreign places and time periods in a way that was exciting, building student interest in learning and driving them away from the question of "Why do we have to learn this?"

Question 2: How do World History teachers evaluate the effectiveness of their instruction on the use of primary source documents with struggling readers?

In order to evaluate the effectiveness of daily instruction using primary source documents, both Blye and Markham used formative and summative assessments to gauge student understanding and skill level. Daily document analysis handouts were collected, then analyzed by both teachers for a number of qualities, depending on the lesson. Sometimes, Blye and Markham looked to see if students had developed a basic understanding of the document based on those questions. Other times, a question synthesizing meaning from multiple documents would be used, such as with Blye's DBQ during the lesson observed. In interviews, both Blye and Markham emphasized that their instruction using primary source documents would grow more in-depth and complex over the course of the year as students grew more confident in their skills, and thus the lessons I observed at the start of the school year would be more simplistic than their lessons toward the end of the year.

In both Blye and Markham's classroom materials, questions were provided along with all reading assignments to help provide scaffolding and guidance to students. These questions varied based on the document itself. For example, Blye's documents were shorter, so they often asked students to summarize the document in their own words. Blye interpreted his students' work on several levels. Blye does not always use the grades students earn on their assignments as data to support whether his lesson worked or not. To Blye, the numbers provided by grades do not show him enough information. He said those numbers provide a "yes or no, right or

wrong, a simple percentage. For me, especially when you're dealing with lexile levels, it's so much more complex." Blye graded the papers with a number as a way to provide the feedback that is both necessary for student success and required by the Morningside Schools, but those grades were not the stopping point. After grading the DBQs students did in class, Blye then broke down each class using several criteria to determine his next steps in instruction. Because Blye attached questions to the documents for the lessons observed, he first looked to see simply whether students had come up with a logical answer for the questions to ensure basic understanding. Additionally, Blye wanted to know "how many students were able to answer using their own words and how many used the words of the documents" to determine whether students were actually analyzing the documents or simply parroting the text in creating the answer. Blye also used anecdotal data about whether students worked independently or with others to see if students were coming up with answers on their own, using the ideas of others, or reaching incorrect conclusions as a result of a group misunderstanding of the documents.

To determine whether a lesson has been successful, Markham evaluated the documents students looked at daily to gain an understanding of their skills and growth in terms of reading and understanding the documents. When students were nearing the end of a unit of study, Markham created a performance task to answer a question using the documents from class as their evidence. For the Industrial Revolution unit, Markham asked, "How did the Industrial Revolution affect people's lives?" Students could use any of the documents provided by Markham throughout the unit, allowing them to use "sources they are familiar with…that they've seen and touched and grappled with a little bit" to answer the question. Markham also expected students to use other information they learned in class, synthesizing documents with prior knowledge to create a product in the same way a historian might.

Blye and Markham also both used DBQs to assess students at the end of each instructional unit. In Markham's classroom, she developed a unit-wide question before beginning to plan the unit that she wanted her students to be able to answer. Throughout the course of the unit, students read and analyzed documents, and as the unit ended, they combined documents from class to create an essay using primary source evidence to support their answer to Markham's unit-wide question. For Blye, students would be given a set of documents with some documents from class, others new, to answer a unit-wide question in a similar way. As students became more comfortable with document analysis, he planned to reduce the number of documents students were familiar with and increase the new documents. Blye's method was adapted from his AP US History courses in an effort to prepare students for further classes.

Reisman (2012) and Smith, Breakstone, and Wineburg (2013) analyzed the assessment of student learning using primary source documents. Reisman's work suggests that repeated instruction in primary source documents and frequent feedback of formative assessments can help students to grow and determine success of a lesson on a daily basis. Smith, Breakstone,a nd Wineburg discuss SHEG, Wineburg's primary source document pedagogy think tank, which includes their Beyond the Bubble program. Beyond the Bubble advocates for Historical Assessments of Thinking (HATs). HATs are brief formative assessments that assess students' ability to use an historical thinking skill from class and transfer it to an unfamiliar document, and Beyond the Bubble has been crafting HATs and researching their effectiveness for over five years. Blye and Markham's formative assessments at the end of class are in the line of repeated instruction and frequent feedback, as both teachers, like Reisman, use a similar lesson plan daily and assess a portion of the lesson to provide feedback for growth.

However, the formative and summative assessments used by Blye and Markham do not demonstrate transferability of skills. Their formative assessments asked students to draw conclusions from their documents rather than ask students to use the skill in a new way, and the conclusions reached were often more of a summative nature than an analytical nature. For example, Markham wanted students to determine how the Industrial Revolution affected people. Students could use a line of text from the historical context section of the primary source documents used to determine that children suffered as child laborers without reading the primary source itself at all. Similarly, their summative assessments often used the same or very similar documents and questions that were used in class, rather than asking students to try their new historical thinking and primary source document skills in a novel situation. Blye and Markham may be able to determine whether students participated in the lesson, whether they learned any of this historical content, or whether they read or made sense of the documents, but student ability to use any of the knowledge or skills from the lesson is not assessed.

Question 3: How do World History teachers perceive their effectiveness of their instruction of the use of primary source documents with struggling readers, and what evidence do they have to support this perception?

By self-advocating to join the study, Blye and Markham articulated their perception that they were skilled World History instructors of primary source documents with struggling readers. In interviews, both teachers described their teaching strategies with terms such as "as any good history teacher knows," "the best instruction consists of…," and "what's important for struggling readers to understand…" Blye and Markham both were able to clearly articulate their philosophies behind teaching, pedagogical methods, rationale behind using such methods, and purpose for teaching using primary sources. Both teachers also had a clear vision of how they

wanted their students to grow; they both wanted students to be able to independently read and analyze primary source documents in order to create their own historical narrative or argument.

Additionally, both teachers were clear in their plan for the course of the unit, the school year, and how they would scaffold their instruction to move students toward the expected growth. They would each begin the year by explicitly modeling the methods by which good readers and historians evaluate a text, guiding students to use evidence from the documents to develop their own understandings and knowledge of the content, and move toward students independently reading, analyzing, and synthesizing documents. Blye and Markham both would use daily instruction with primary source documents that culminated in a summative DBQ essay at the end of each unit, gradually building in less supporting questions and instruction and more challenging documents. Blye also described building in student choice regarding levels of difficulty in lexile level and additional scaffolding throughout the year so that students could select the text and scaffolding level that best suited their confidence and ability.

However, neither Blye nor Markham was able to explain exactly how they knew their lesson was successful or what data they used to make these conclusions. They could articulate their grading procedures and describe their assessments, but the details of how success was determined for the class and lesson as a whole were left unsaid. Blye was much more detailed in his description of data collection for his own purposes, describing his review of student work to interpret for student analysis rather than summarization and including his perception of how students work together.

With that said, both Blye and Markham's description of exactly how they evaluated student work for understanding, what they were looking for in student work to determine student success, and how this impacted their perception of the lesson's effectiveness were nebulous and

brief. Blye and Markham were only able to describe how they would collect data and their plans moving forward, not the evidence itself. The reasons for this could be many. As Lesh (2011) titled a chapter of his book "How am I supposed to do this every day? Historical investigation vs. sleep," the planning procedure for a primary source lesson involves significant time and consideration of instructional practices, text selection, understanding of content, and development of a driving question to pull the lesson together.

Blye and Markham also have the additional challenge of creating a lesson that suits the needs of their struggling readers. In order to manage the constraints of time, Blye and Markham may have elected to formally assess their instruction on a larger scale with their summative assessments as their primary source of evidence about student and instructional success. At this point, the question of "How do World History teachers perceive their effectiveness of their instruction on the use of primary source documents with struggling readers, and what evidence do they have to support this perception?" remains unanswered by this study, providing further questions.

The next chapter of this dissertation presents a summary of the study and important conclusions drawn from the data in chapter 4. It discusses implications for action as a result of the study and areas for further research.

5. DISCUSSION

This chapter begins with a summary of the purpose, research questions, and methodology used in the study. Then, I explain the major findings of the study as well as unanticipated outcomes of the study. Finally, the chapter closes with recommendations for further research, implications for pedagogy, and concluding remarks.

Overview of the problem

In the era of "fake news," it is crucial that every citizen have the ability to read a variety of texts critically. A student who holds the tools to make meaning of primary documents in a World History class could feasibly make meaning of a wide variety of other texts because primary source documents in World History courses are difficult to comprehend for many readers. These documents often include translations of foreign words that are not easily anglicized, such as Mohammed or Chinggis Khan, and translations may cause syntax to be confusing for many students (Stearns, 2000). Additionally, students may lack the prior knowledge to connect to the historical and geographical context of the text, making it nearly impossible to gather meaning (VanSledright, 2006). Unfortunately, as of May 2016, about 60% of secondary readers from eighth to twelfth required interventions to understand the words they read, and 22% of adults have minimal literacy skills (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2016).

Purpose statement

Students who struggle to read but can make meaning from challenging texts such as primary source documents in the World History classroom could hold the tools necessary to understanding a variety of complex texts necessary for effective citizenship today. The purpose of this study is to determine the pedagogy of successful World History teachers of struggling readers when using primary source documents.

While educational researchers such as Wineburg, Stearns, Ogle, Reisman, VanSledright, Perfetti, and Lesh agree that reading primary source documents like a historian is an important skill for all history curricula, very little research has been done on the use of primary source documents in the World History course, and even less research has been done regarding struggling readers using primary source documents in the World History classroom. A need for this research is striking. Every state has social studies standards for a world history course (Mead, 2006), and both the Common Core State Standards and the National Council for Social Studies include standards that specify students should be able to read and critically analyze primary source documents (Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2017; NCSS Teacher Standards, 2017). If students in most public schools in America are taking World History courses, and 60% of those students are struggling to understand what they have read, then it is important for secondary history teachers to understand pedagogical practices specific to struggling readers in World History. The primary source document lesson plans created by the Stanford History Education Group reached 3.3 million downloads in 2017, indicating teachers' interest in teaching using primary source documents. Most of the literature surrounding the World History course focuses on what content should be taught in the World History curriculum (Stearns, 2000), and most literature in content area literacy focuses on generic reading strategies (Daniels, et al, 2007). Reisman found in 2012 that using primary source documents daily in the history classroom helped students to develop better disciplinary reading habits, particularly for struggling readers. This study fills a gap in the literature regarding pedagogical practices used by successful World History teachers of struggling readers.

Review of the Methodology

To better understand how successful teachers use primary source documents to teach struggling readers world history, I conducted a wisdom of practice case study evaluating two different experienced World History teachers from the Morningside School's Parkview High School campus. A wisdom of practice study provides a window into the classrooms of effective teachers, allowing for an understanding of the daily practices of teachers who are successful in helping students to read, understand, and critically analyze primary source documents. In order to closely evaluate the process of teaching struggling readers to use primary source documents in the World History classroom, a case study allowed me to look at each step of two teachers' pedagogical decisions before, during, and after a lesson. This dissertation was modeled after Wineburg and Wilson's *Models of wisdom in the teaching of history* (1991), an article which followed two very different but very successful history teachers and analyze their practices.

The Morningside Charter Schools were chosen as the location for this case study for two reasons. First, the mission of these charter schools is to prepare students for college and to enable students to participate in public policy within their community, city, state, and nation. As a result, the Morningside Schools use a significant amount of primary source documents in their social studies classrooms as a vehicle to understanding public policy. Second, many students at Morningside Schools are struggling readers. At the Parkview High School campus, where this study took place, only 17% of students scored "Approached Expectations" or "Exceeds Expectations" on the spring 2016 English-Language Arts PARCC exam, meaning that 83% of Parkview High School students read below grade level. Because the Morningside Schools use primary source documents to fulfill the school mission and have a significant population of

struggling readers, World History teachers at the Morningside Schools are likely to know the pedagogical tools to help struggling readers to make sense of primary source documents.

The teachers participating in this study had two criterion. First, the teachers must teach struggling readers, which was identified using public PARCC exam data relative to the Morningside Schools. Second, teachers must have experience teaching World History with primary source documents. Both participants had six or more years of experience, and while the experience of each teacher varied, they had both taught exclusively at Title I schools. Because both teachers had worked at Morningside for over two years, they had participated in two or more years of professional development regarding the use of primary source documents with struggling readers as part of the Morningside mission and professional development program.

Jeremy Blye and Briana Markham were the two participants in this study. Both Blye and Markham had over three years of teaching experience, all in Title 1 schools with large numbers of struggling readers. They both taught at the Parkview High School campus of the Morningside Charter Schools. Blye taught World History 1, a course taken by freshmen that includes topics in world history from 600 CE to 1800 CE. Markham taught World History 2, a course taken by sophomores that includes topics in world history from 1800 CE to present. Data collection occurred in October 2017.

Data was collected through interviews, observations, and documents. By collecting three forms of data, I was able to triangulate the data (Yin 2014). Triangulation ensures validity and reliability by using comparing multiple forms of data. Data that provides similar conclusions in multiple forms is more likely to be valid (Merriam 2009). Interviews took place before and after observations at the Morningside Schools in order to understand the lessons and pedagogy holistically, not just in the moment. Data was collected from interviews through both audio

recordings of the interviews and notes. Additionally, direct observation of pedagogy in each participant's classroom occurred. While multiple lessons and class periods were observed, the lessons described in Chapter 4 were selected as exemplars, just as Wineburg and Wilson (1991) selected one lesson from their participants. Finally, documents used in the classroom were collected both digitally and in paper form. Triangulation and member checking helped to ensure validity in the study.

Major findings

Wineburg and Wilson's 1991 study which this dissertation is based upon concludes with a discussion of differences and similarities between the participants relative to the literature. In the interest of organization, I have broken down the comparison of Blye and Markham by category as it relates to the research questions. Overall, I found Blye and Markham to be more similar than different, as their use of visuals to introduce content, use of explicit modeling of comprehension strategies, philosophy regarding classroom environment, daily use of primary source documents, and modification of documents were very similar. Blye and Markham varied in terms of their introduction of lesson-specific content, choice of documents, and leverage of personality in pedagogy.

How do World History teachers teach struggling readers to understand the complex vocabulary and concepts associated with primary source documents at the beginning of t?

Blye and Markham both planned their lessons with a similar pattern. Both teachers began their lessons with a visual to pique student interest, access prior knowledge, preview the content, and build a framework for analyzing primary source documents. Blye used his own travel pictures to create an accessible and friendly environment for students to build confidence and ask questions. Markham used images she found through school-provided resources, public

domain, or digital archives such as the Library of Congress. Her images were cultivated to give students a clear idea of the historical time period being discussed and to ensure that all students were on the same page in terms of understanding the context of the lesson. In both cases, Markham and Blye modeled the process they would later use in analyzing primary source documents with the visuals, which provided a framework for students later in the class period. Their pre-reading strategy opened the lesson by providing students access to the content in a less intimidating way and building confidence in their analytical thinking skills (Massey 2004, Ogle 2007, Perfetti 2010).

Once Blye and Markham chose their topics for each lesson, they then set about how to introduce the content necessary to understanding the primary source documents that made up the bulk of the lesson. Each teacher's choice of content delivery fit their personality. Blye chose a form of direct instruction, using a lecture and short video to provide students with a background on the spread of Islam. This suited Blye's personality; as a ringmaster, he was dynamic, engaging, funny, and knowledgeable about his content, and students appeared to be hanging on his every word. At one point in the lesson, Blye prompted students to "Imagine how people must have felt…" before he trailed off and walked towards a student sitting near the door. "What are you doing here?", he asked, and the student explained that she had left her Earth Science class because the "girl next to [her] talks too much…I'm here for YOU!" This student loved Blye's class so much that she left her other class to attend his lecture. He sent her back to her class, then jokingly bellowed at his students, "She was here the whole time and you all couldn't tell me?" The students howled with laughter for a moment, then Blye went back to his notes and pictures. Blye's circus was open to all, and students wanted to be there with him.

Markham used a secondary source about the Industrial Revolution to give her an additional opportunity to model her reading process for the students. Markham, the yoga instructor, developed a procedure so that individual students could access that reading in the way that made the most sense for them. Some students read aloud to the class, some students listened as the students read aloud, some students read quickly and independently. All students annotated their text, whether they followed along as Markham modeled the annotation process on the whiteboard or made their own individual annotations while reading. In any case, students were able to find the reading strategy that best suited their ability and confidence. Markham guided students along their individual reading paths while creating a whole-class experience, as a yoga instructor would do.

Blye and Markham both explicitly modeled their process of reading for students at different points throughout the lesson. Markham modeled annotation as students read the secondary source, while Blye modeled strategies for reading primary source documents as students read through short excerpts from primary source documents in their DBQ. Each teacher projected a text onto their whiteboards, and as the text was read aloud, they wrote questions and ideas and circled words they didn't understand. When it came time for students to read independently, students used these strategies to guide their understanding of the text. Explicit modeling of expert reading processes enabled students to see firsthand what good readers do while analyzing a text and provided students a process to break down a difficult text (Massey, 2004; Ogle, 2007; Reisman, 2012).

Finally, in both classes, students engaged in independent practice dictated by class norms. Blye and Markham both played music in the background and posted a timer to remind students to stay on task. Students worked either individually or with small groups to read the document,

analyze it, make annotations, and answer questions associated with the document. During independent practice, both teachers circulated the room to help students who had questions and redirect students who were off task. The text, annotations, and questions answered during independent practice was turned in to the teachers at the end of the class period to assess their understanding of the documents and the reading process.

Both Blye and Markham emphasized the importance of daily exposure to primary source documents in their classes, and primary source documents were used in many aspects of their instruction and their planning. Each teacher built upon the previous day's primary sources to a unit-ending performance task, which takes many forms but always includes primary source documents. Additionally, the Morningside Schools included primary source documents on their district-wide final exams, given at the end of both fall and spring semester. Their use of primary source documents on a daily basis was purposeful and deliberate. For example, Blye's choice of sources from the Quran would later be compared to sources from Roman Catholic leaders during the Crusades, allowing students to compare the two sides of the war. Markham created her unit-ending question, "How did the Industrial Revolution affect people's lives?", then developed daily instruction revolving around documents that would help students to answer that question. Consistent use of primary source documents and the strategies necessary to decode those documents are a cornerstone of effective teaching for literacy (Alvermann, Gillis, & Phelps, 2011; Beers, 2003; Daniels et al., 2007; Greenleaf 2009; Harvey & Goudvis, 2007; McBride, 2007; Reisman 2012). Daily literacy instruction enables students to practice and refine the skills necessary to understand and make meaning from a variety of difficult texts.

In both classrooms, texts were carefully selected to meet the needs of struggling readers. Blye and Markham considered several criteria when selecting texts: modification of the text to

enable student understanding, difficult words or translations, and content. Both teachers modified texts for their lessons, as many primary source documents in world history were not written for high schoolers in the 21st century. They each pared down documents to a manageable length for the lesson and changed difficult syntax to suit their students' lexile level. Neither teacher removed difficult words or translations, however; they instead chose to explain those words in the moment so that students understood the words as they saw them and learned to figure the meanings out for themselves.

Blye and Markham differed in their selection of documents relative to the content. Blye wanted his DBQs to provide students with a certain viewpoint about the world, while Markham thought holistically about the unit, then developed document-based lessons that would help students to meet the learning target at the end of the unit. For example, Blye created a lesson that helped his students understand the spread of Islam, then a lesson that allowed students to see similarities with the rise of Christianity in the same period. Later, students would use their understandings from those two lessons to build an argument about the Crusades. Markham first created her culminating question, "How did the Industrial Revolution affect people's lives?", then built lessons around that question so that students could access a variety of texts and create their own answer.

In many aspects, Blye and Markham proved themselves to be master World History teachers of struggling readers who use primary source documents. Their daily in-class practices and pedagogy for struggling readers based on best practices and research-based instruction methods for social studies literacy instruction (Alvermann et al., 2012; Baxter, 2007; Beck, 2002; Damico, 2009; Jewett, 2013; Massey, 2004; Ogle, 2007; Perfetti, 2010; Reisman, 2012; Tatum, 2012; Wineburg, 2001). Their pattern of engaging students through visuals, modelling,

and individual practice provided students with a workable daily routine in which new skills could be learned and practiced (Cooper, 2003; Reisman, 2012).

With that said, Blye and Markham both fell short in providing the "Why do I need to know this?" to their students, an important part of both literacy instruction and culturally responsive pedagogy (Ladson-Billings, 2009; Tovani & Moje, 2017). Neither the historical content of the lessons observed nor the skills taught in the lessons were presented with any means of transferability to students' daily lives or engaging, relevant connection to students. Because reading is so challenging for many struggling readers, texts should be used in conjunction with a question, idea, or argument that provides relevance to the student (Alvermann et al., 2012; Beers, 2003; Damien, 2009; Jewett, 2013; Lesh, 2011; Tovani & Moje, 2017). In both cases, Blye and Markham presented students with questions relevant to the historical content they were teaching, but there was no tie back to students' current lives or reality. Creating a more authentic, real-world question to drive a unit's instruction could help students to engage more with the text and the skills (Tovani & Moje, 2017). Similarly, Blye and Markham could also have students apply their new reading strategies to a more modern text relevant to students' lives so that students could see how the skills learned in class affect them outside of class (Wineburg, 2016). Building in more relevance for students could allow Blye and Markham to engage students more with pedagogy that further suits their rationale for teaching.

How do World History teachers evaluate the effectiveness of their instruction on the use of primary source documents with struggling readers?

Blye and Markham both used formative and summative assessments to evaluate the effectiveness of their daily instruction. Formative assessments were both formal and informal. Formally, each teacher collected students' work each day. Student work would be assessed for

understanding and evidence of use of the reading strategies modeled. Informally, Blye and Markham used whole-group instruction to assess student understanding. Each teacher asked questions of the class, carefully guiding students as they responded to use the strategies presented to them. For example, Markham asked students what the image projected at the start of the lesson showed, and students began to analyze the image. She reminded students to simply look at the image and describe it first before analyzing, correcting students in their procedure. This formative assessment allowed Markham to quickly assess what students understood and how they came to understand it. Blye similarly asked students questions as they read through the documents, prompting them to ask questions of the text and to think deeply about the ideas presented in the text.

Blye and Markham both included a summative assessment at the end of each unit, often in the form of a document-based question essay. Students in both classes were expected to use primary source documents to develop an argument. In Blye's class, the primary source documents and question was new to students on the day in which they wrote the essay, while in Markham's class, students used documents from previous classes to build to a larger question presented throughout the unit. In either case, both teachers assessed their previous instruction by giving students an opportunity to demonstrate understanding of the content and their ability to read primary source documents.

Blye and Markham both expressed a desire for students to be better able to read any document and understand the world as a whole through reading primary source documents, and they said that their lessons were planned around the idea that students could use the skills in their lessons outside of the classroom. However, the formative and summative assessments given by Blye and Markham did not provide the teachers with any data about whether or not students

could adapt the skills to additional documents or concepts because Blye and Markham did not ask students to do so. The carefully crafted pedagogy may have helped students to better understand the processes of reading and understanding history, but there is no way of knowing whether Blye or Markham met their goal of transferring these skills to other situations based on the assessments given to the students. In order to understand whether students were better able to read, write, and think about history, these teachers should ask students to use those skills on new documents or in situations based around new content, ideas, or viewpoints.

How do World History teachers perceive their effectiveness of their instruction on the use of primary source documents with struggling readers, and what evidence do they have to support this perception?

Blye and Markham both had a clear mission and vision for their teaching using primary source documents, and they had each developed their plan to help struggling readers better understand the reading and analytic processes necessary to understand primary source documents. When asked about how they perceived their lesson's effectiveness, however, both teachers pointed to their grading procedures as their method of understanding their effectiveness and as their data towards it. Neither teacher articulated exactly how they knew whether the lesson had worked or not based on the grades or the formative assessments done in class. Blye and Markham created a plan and stuck to it, and much of the evaluation of its success relied upon the summative assessments at the end of the unit. There could be many causes for this phenomenon. The procedures involved in curating a daily lesson based on primary sources for struggling readers are time-consuming and difficult, which means that Blye and Markham simply may not have devoted time to evaluate the effectiveness of each lesson when a new lesson is required daily. Blye and Markham may also have had a more intuitive way of

understanding the success of the lesson, meaning that data would be relatively nebulous or hard to describe. While Blye and Markham were both very invested in the rationale for their pedagogy and the planning and execution of said pedagogy, their explanations of their effectiveness and data to support their effectiveness were significantly less descriptive.

Unanticipated findings

Wineburg and Wilson (1991) refer to their teachers as the Visible and the Invisible Teacher. The structure of both Blye and Markham's classes place them at the direct center of instruction, and they both use their personalities to guide their instruction. Even though the lesson structure, pacing, and strategies were very similar in both classrooms, the energy in the room during whole-class instruction was very different because of the demeanor of each teacher. Even though the teachers' personalities were completely different, the effect on the class was the same, as both teachers were effective in harnessing their own personal strengths to create a dynamic classroom environment in which students felt comfortable enough to ask questions and to wrestle with difficult ideas and texts.

Jeremy Blye's personality as a teacher was that of a circus ringmaster. Much like John Price, the Visible Teacher in the Wineburg and Wilson (1991) study, Blye used his vibrant personality and booming voice to create an engaging environment in which all students were on the edge of their seats. Blye also opened himself up a great deal to his students, showing pictures of his family in Jerusalem and of himself as a teenager, which drew their attention. Blye was a white man from an affluent family who had visited 70 countries, and he stood out at Parkview High School. At Parkview High, 100% of students are labeled as economically disadvantaged. 96% of students are African American, 4% are Hispanic, and there are no white students. Students may have never spent time with somebody like Blye before. Blye used those

differences as a tool to leverage student interest and build relationships with students, allowing them to ask personal questions and building that personal experience into his content.

Blye's classroom instruction centered around him in a way that captivated students' attention. In the lesson described in this study, Blye concluded the lesson with students organizing the binders that would be used in class daily. The lesson described in this study was only the second content-based lesson of the school year, as Blye spent about a month at the beginning of the year working through a public policy initiative required for Morningside freshmen. Because the binder portion of the class is not related to primary source documents, I chose not to detail it in the same manner, but one moment of the binder portion stood out to me as an example of Blye's ability to create a welcoming, engaging, fun classroom. After giving explicit instructions on what to do with the dividers for the binders, Blye asked a student to stand up in the center of the room. The plastic wrappings of the binder dividers rustled around the room as students followed Blye's instructions.

"Everyone, stop what you're doing now! I want you to look at Robert," he commanded, pointing to the student standing in the middle of the room. "Now, I want you to take all the garbage from your binder dividers, wad it up into a ball, and throw it at Robert. On three—one, two, three!" The look of shock on Robert's face followed by the shrieks of laughter and delight of the rest of the class stood out as an example of how much students loved Blye and how much joy he brought to their day in small ways. This move was planned and executed in every class, but the joy both the students and Blye got from it was new every time. Jeremy Blye, the ringmaster, brought excitement and fun to a challenging, difficult topic in his World History 1 class.

While Blye did not explicitly mention his race or cultural differences between himself and his students in his interview or during his lessons, his pedagogical style used many of the elements of culturally responsive teaching. Blye created an engaging classroom specifically designed around the cultural needs and interests of his students, building from the unique needs and strengths of each class (Ladson-Billings 2006, Ladson-Billings 2009). For example, he used his travel pictures as a way to address both the emotional and cultural capital needs of his students: his students needed to both understand parts of the world they had never seen, yet they needed to feel confident in their prior knowledge in order to work through the challenging documents ahead. As Blye explained, his students' thought process as they talk about his photos allow them to "realize that they know a lot, even though at first, they're afraid to [apply it]…it really builds up their confidence." Understanding the specific needs of his students and building his pedagogy around those needs is an element of culturally responsive teaching (Cooper 2003, Ladson-Billings 2009).

Briana Markham's personality as a teacher was that of a yoga instructor. Markham led the class throughout every portion of the lesson, speaking calmly and providing time for individual practice and introspection. She wanted students to come to answers themselves but built in support systems throughout the lesson, such as having students read aloud, modeling annotation, and prompting students to either slow down or dig deeper throughout their analysis or the document. Markham was not comparable to Wineburg and Wilson's Invisible Teacher, Elizabeth Jensen, because Markham was very much visible in her classroom. Instruction centered around her guidance and support, even though her persona calmed where as Blye's dazzled. Like Blye, Markham also incorporated elements of culturally responsive teaching into her pedagogical style, although this was not explicitly discussed in interviews or during lessons.

Markham used her pedagogical tools to bring students into the intellectual content of the lesson. She calmly dismissed off-task behaviors, such as the student who kept yelling, "I see Teddy Grahams!" throughout her lesson, and instead worked with students to develop their intellectual capacity and curiosity (Ladson-Billings 2009). Markham also incorporated elements of Noddings (2002) and care theory. Noddings (2002) believes that children are best able to learn when a sense of security and of care is applied. Each part of Markham's class is designed so that individual learners feel safe and supported. For example, in order to be sensitive to the needs of individual learners and of students with difficult behavior, she planned her lessons so that many different learning styles are accommodated in every lesson. Markham used her experience to set up her classroom in a manner that makes a variety of students comfortable. In Markham's classroom, upon entering the door, a large circle of approximately eight desks sat immediately to the left. A small cart with her computer and her projector sits in the front middle section of the classroom, surrounded by four individual desks. To the right of those desks, a group of four desks in a circle and two pairs of desks were situated. In Markham's eyes, this arrangement allowed for the more collaborative students to work together, the quieter students who need to focus individually to work alone, and the students who want to work in smaller groups to have a quieter space.

What I did not anticipate was the significance that demeanor played in both Blye and Markham's classroom environments. Whether ringmaster or yoga instructor, their consistent and positive classroom personas caused their classrooms to feel completely different, even though much of the pedagogy and philosophy were by and large the same. In my focus on primary source documents and secondary literacy strategies, I may have left out some of the most important elements of effective pedagogy—classroom climate and the relationship between

student and teacher. Blye and Markham both created their instructional worlds based on their own experiences and learning, then tailored their vision to meet the needs of their students. Blye's own struggles with reading and admiration for a theatrical teacher drove his rationale to provide an environment filled with laughter, personalized instruction, and scaffolded support for his students. Markham's varied experiences as a teacher, special education director, motivational speaker, and dean of academics provided her with the tools and mission to support the unique challenges of her individual students. Her class procedures such as her levels, explicit modeling of tasks, and careful questioning of students made her class both challenging and comfortable. As I took into account the ways Blye and Markham developed their classroom environments and made pedagogical decisions that supported that schema, I was reminded of how intensely personal classroom choices can be and thus how difficult creating a pedagogical framework is. What works for Blye may not work for Markham, and vice versa. Moreover, the pedagogical decisions that set the climate in either classroom may not suit the needs of all children.

Additionally, Blye and Markham both spent a significant amount of time considering their rationale for teaching using primary sources and how they would make this rationale come to life. Their instructional planning and execution was built considering the larger purposes they wanted to serve rather than a desire to teach trivia about Islam or the Industrial Revolution. Blye hoped his students would better understand the world and have the ability to apply what they had learned to their lives as a whole, and so he showed them the world through his own eyes, then fitted them with the lenses to make sense of what they could see and read. Markham wanted students to recognize their own abilities as learners without the frustrations they had met in school in the past, and she created a classroom in which different types of learners could access

the materials and challenge themselves in their own ways while still working together at a common task. An unanticipated result of this study is that some of the most significant elements of Blye and Markham's pedagogical decisions were not shaped by their beliefs in primary source documents, reading, or history but by their experiences and beliefs about school, students, society, and self.

Implications for Action

Addressing the series of dilemmas posed to a struggling reader attempting to make sense of a primary source document in a World History class is daunting. However, Blye and Markham were able to address these challenges to create engaging, challenging, supportive classroom environments in which students were able to learn strategies for understanding the complex processes behind interpreting a primary source document in the World History classroom. This study provided a look at the actual classroom pedagogy of two World History teachers as well as their rationale behind their pedagogy, and the similarities between the two teachers point to a method built on research that other teachers could potentially adapt for their own classrooms.

Both Blye and Markham used a similar routine in developing their lessons, despite the atmosphere of their classrooms being very different. Each class began by interpreting a visual source, whether it be from Blye's travels or from a museum, in order to build confidence, create interest in the topic, provide a window into the time period, or activate prior knowledge. The classes then moved into a portion of the class in which students learned content relative to the primary source documents being included later in the lesson. Blye and Markham both modeled effective reading strategies for primary source documents, including using the source as a way to preview the document's ideas. Finally, students engaged in independent practice of the reading

and analysis of primary source documents. In order to create routine in classroom practice and instructional planning, Blye and Markham used this model of instruction nearly every day.

Blye and Markham's model integrated much of what existing secondary and content-area literacy suggests is best practices for work with struggling readers. Wineburg (1991) advocated for heuristics in the teaching of primary and secondary sources that included sourcing and contextualization. Blye and Markham's lessons were grounded in sourcing and contextualization. Both teachers asked consistently asked students to consider the source, and they provided context through the content component of their lesson (e.g. lecture). Blye and Markham incorporated pre-reading and during-reading strategies, as advocated by Massey (2004), Ogle (2007) and Wineburg (1991). The visuals used to begin the lessons helped students to access prior knowledge, preview the content, and begin the process of analyzing documents. The explicit modeling of during-reading strategies as advocated by Greenleaf (2009) and Beers (2007) provided daily interventions for struggling readers.

The visuals, content, modeling, independent practice model could be helpful for secondary teachers hoping to incorporate primary source documents into their World History classrooms. Its simplicity, accessibility for students, and applicability to a variety of content areas could provide teachers a framework for daily primary source instruction.

Recommendations for Further Research

Neither Blye nor Markham was able to explain how they knew their lesson was effective. Further research in the area of assessment regarding the use of primary source documents in World History classrooms for struggling readers should be done to determine whether instruction in historical thinking translates into student success in reading, citizenship, or historical understanding. The complex series of processes involved in reading, historical thinking, and

everyday instructional practice have made it tremendously difficult to assess how and if the use of primary source documents in the secondary classroom benefits students or improves their reading abilities.

As part of their Beyond the Bubble program, the Stanford History Education Group (SHEG) has been attempting such research since 2012, and proposed models for assessment of historical thinking have come from both SHEG and Ercikan and Seixas (2015). Still, wide variation within the proposed models makes determining the best course of action difficult. Creating valid assessments that produce valid evidence is incredibly challenging and relies on myriad factors. Ercikan and Seixas (2015) described three particular concerns when creating valid assessments to determine historical thinking using primary source documents: the relationship of the assessment to historical thinking, students' content knowledge and its role in the assessment, and reading and writing skills of the students.

Further research should not only be done on creating assessments that produce valid evidence for student learning when using primary source documents but also on how to create practical, formative assessments within the context of the daily lesson in class. Blye and Markham used primary sources on a daily basis, and their need for data about their daily instruction is critical to their ability to develop the reading and thinking skills of their students. Research that enables teachers to create assessments for quick feedback on the effectiveness of their instruction and on students' ways of thinking is necessary to guiding the pedagogical decisions and patterns of teachers.

The role of text choice within the World History classroom has been addressed in terms of content, but further research on how texts are selected by World History teachers of struggling readers would help teachers to better understand the needs of those students. While Blye chose a

large variety of smaller texts in his DBQ in class, Markham instead chose two longer texts for student analysis: one text to introduce the content and another text to provide students a window into the time period. Both teachers referred to the content of their course when explaining much of their document choices. Markham's first unit, the Industrial Revolution, provided her access to many documents written originally in English, requiring very little translation or editing. Blye's first unit, Islam, included documents written in Arabic in the 600's, which would require significant translation and editing to make the documents meaningful to Blye's high school students. Additionally, Blye's philosophy that building confidence is paramount to success at the start of high school may have guided his hand toward the use of shorter documents. Very little research exists to support Blye or Markham's choices from a World History standpoint, and an understanding of what kinds of texts are most useful in certain pedagogical situations and within certain segments of the World History curriculum could make primary source text selection less challenging for World History teachers of struggling readers.

Because Blye and Markham are colleagues at the same school and frequently collaborate to ensure that their teaching of how to read primary source documents emphasize similar skills and strategies. They also attend the same professional development, learning many of the same pedagogical techniques, and they have access to the same resources. Despite their differences in teaching experience and personality, Blye and Markham have much in common, and their collegiality and school environment may play a significant role in those similarities. Further research using a more diverse pool of educators may yield a more diverse set of instructional strategies and assessment tools.

Blye and Markham's lesson plans looked remarkably similar. In both classrooms, teachers began with analysis of a visual to begin the lesson, provided background knowledge to

introduce the content and context surrounding the primary sources, modeled the practice of reading primary sources to their students, and provided time for independent practice. Another study could be done in which World History teachers were given professional development in creating a similar lesson for struggling secondary readers, then executed it in their own classes. Such a study would give more insight into the applicability of Blye and Markham's instructional plan across different school systems, personality types, and student populations.

I observed and interviewed Blye and Markham at the very beginning of the school year, in which both teachers were still in the process of evaluating student ability levels, instructing students in the most basic reading skills involved in reading primary source documents, and setting up the pedagogical patterns that would drive instruction for the rest of the school year. Both teachers discussed their trajectory and steps throughout the year to build upon the base of reading and analysis skills for use in primary source documents in their classroom, but I was unable to observe how Blye and Markham adjusted their instruction throughout the school year based on student improvement, interest, or other changes. A longer study in of teachers who use primary source documents daily in their World History classes with struggling readers could provide more information on instructional planning, formative and summative assessment, and student growth. With data from a full year of study, a more clear idea of how Blye and Markham assessed their lesson's success would likely emerge.

Concluding remarks

This study confirmed many of my beliefs in using primary source documents with struggling readers in the World History classroom, and it also raised some new questions for me. Blye and Markham's lesson structure fit much of the existing literature regarding content-area literacy instruction, reading instruction for struggling readers, and historical thinking skills. By

using pre-reading strategies to engage students and provoke prior knowledge, during-reading strategies including modeling to help students understand the process behind reading primary source documents, and post-reading strategies to develop new knowledge, Blye and Markham were both able to create a classroom environment in which students actively participated in the learning, however challenging, with teacher support. Articulating the evidence for the effectiveness of their instruction proved to be more difficult for the teachers than anticipated, despite both classrooms using research-driven methods and building a positive atmosphere for learning in their classroom. While I have always believed that great teaching possesses a certain magic, and Blye and Markham both possess a teaching *je ne sais quoi*, explaining and defending that magic is a daunting task. Blye and Markham each created a powerful learning environment in which they harnessed their own strengths and merged them with best practices in pedagogy. Creating such an environment is incredibly difficult; I myself was unable to create that powerful learning environment at Parkview High during my tenure.

Personally, my return to Parkview High School allowed me to close that door with hope rather than defeat. When I walked away from Parkview as a teacher in 2014, I worried for the students I left behind, and I thought the problems facing the Morningside Schools and other urban schools like it were overwhelming. Coming back to Parkview caused me some anxiety, but after spending time learning about and from Blye and Markham, I saw students overcoming their challenges in reading with the help of teachers that were powerful, effective, and empowering.

6. AFTERWORD

In the time between my completion of this dissertation and its approval, I received a call from Jeremy Blye. I was heartbroken to discover that he was leaving not only the Morningside Schools but the teaching profession as a whole, having been admitted to a foreign affairs graduate program at a prestigious university in the area. While Blye and I had become friends after our work together, his call surprised me because we were not close enough to merit a phone call for news. Blye explained that in his last few months as an educator, he wanted to do as much as he could to leave the school and the students in a better position than when he left. While I really wanted to tell him that continuing to teach would benefit the school and his students most, it was not my place to advise him on major life decisions, and I agreed to participate in a group of teachers that would create some achievable, meaningful goals to benefit the Morningside Schools before his departure.

Upon joining this group of teachers and engaging in some virtual meetings and brainstorming sessions, I discovered that Markham was also leaving the profession to pursue independent entrepreneurial pursuits. . I reached out to Markham, who had expressed some ambivalence during data collection about how long she would stay in the classroom. During my last observation with Markham, students were unexpectedly dismissed from school a few minutes early for an emergency faculty meeting. Before the faculty meeting, she confided with me that financial problems at the school had caused them to admit about 80 new students from other schools two months into the school year. Morningside Charter Schools had some money from private endowments and fundraising, but the bulk of its budget came from state and federal funding per pupil. When the money ran low, the school enrolled more students. According to Markham, these students were often disruptive because they had not acclimated to the Parkview

culture, which had a negative impact on the learning and culture already present within the school. She mentioned being frustrated and wondered aloud how much longer she would continue teaching, claiming that it "wasn't the same" as when she started, then departed for the meeting. When I reached out to Markham upon hearing about her coming departure from education, her responses were vague. She simply said that she loved the students and hoped for the best for them, but she had to look out for herself first. She wanted to make more money, she had a few business ideas in place, and she would be her own boss for the foreseeable future. Because Markham had not opened up to me to the same extent that Blye had, I did not hear anything else from her.

When I finished this research, I felt reinvigorated by the idea that schools like the Morningside Charter Schools that face significant poverty and culturally underserved students were making significant progress through effective teachers and administration. Upon hearing that Blye and Markham were leaving, however, I was disheartened and concerned. These schools need teachers like Blye and Markham, and they certainly are not a dime a dozen. In my year at the Morningside Schools, 27 teachers left before Thanksgiving break at a school that only had 650 students. The void those teachers left was often filled by a string of substitute teachers or by replacement teachers who only lasted a few weeks before disappearing. In such an unstable environment, students were not learning and often were not safe, as the school lacked the authority to stop violent fights, truancy, and drug abuse.

When I came for my first visit to the Parkview campus as a researcher, an administrator I had worked with assured me that my year was "the worst year in the school's history" for a variety of reasons; teacher and administrative turnover, high crime in the neighborhoods surrounding the school, funding problems. Yet, here I was, three years later, seeing many of the

same problems. Two gifted teachers were leaving despite having deep, well-reasoned, emotional rationales for working at this school with these students. The neighborhoods continue to have exceptionally high crime, and one student I taught was killed in a drive-by shooting. The school continues to struggle with funding. Even as I work with Blye to develop projects to help the school, I lament the hole that his and Markham's absence will create. I worry that without a significant change to the way our education system handles the challenges facing the Morningside Schools and schools like them, the schools and the students within them will continue to struggle, not just with reading but with making the socioeconomic and cultural changes needed for greater equity for these children. Two wonderful teachers may make a world of difference to their students, but these students need more of wonderful teachers. Until schools provide the emotional and professional support, infrastructure, financial incentive, and administrative stability necessary to keep great teachers like Blye and Markham in the classroom, large scale change for their students is nearly impossible.

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APPENDICES
APPENDIX A
DOCUMENT BASED QUESTION ASSIGNMENT FROM JEREMY BLYE'S CLASSROOM

NAME: DATE: CLASS:

DBQ FOCUS: The Spread of Islamic Civilization

Document-Based Question Format

Directions: The following question is based on the accompanying Documents (The documents have been edited for the purpose of this exercise.) This question is designed to test your ability to work with and understand historical documents.

Write a response that:

- Has a relevant **thesis** and **supports that thesis with evidence** from the documents.
- Cites evidence from included source perspectives.
- Analyzes the documents by grouping them in as many appropriate ways as possible. Does not simply summarize the documents individually.
- Takes into account both the sources of the documents and the author's points of view.

Historical Context: *From its beginnings in Arabia to its extensive empire encompassing the Middle East, parts of Asia, North Africa, and parts of Europe, the spread of Islam in the late 600's and 700's has drawn much study. The Spread of Islam began when prophet Muhammad (570 - 632) started preaching the revelation he claimed to have received from God at the age of 40. During his lifetime the Muslim ummah was established in Arabia by way of their conversion or allegiance to Islam. Muslim dynasties were soon established and subsequent empires such as those of the Abbasids, Fatimids, Almoravids, Seljukids, Ajuuraan, Adal, and Warsangali in Somalia, Mughals in India and Safavids in Persia and Ottomans were among the largest and most powerful in the world. The people of the Islamic world created numerous sophisticated centers of culture and science with far-reaching mercantile networks, travelers, scientists, hunters, mathematicians, doctors and philosophers, all of whom contributed to the Golden Age of Islam.*

Question

How did Islamic civilization spread to encompass such an extensive empire?

Document 1

Source: In this excerpt, Mohammad gives choices to the leader of a Christian Arab tribe

	Student Analysis
Believe or else pay tribute [money]... obey the Lord and His Apostle [Mohammad], and he will defend you... But if you displease them... I will fight against you and take captive your little ones and slay the elder...	What alternatives does Mohammad offer to the leader of the Christian Arab tribe?

Document 2

Source: This quotation from the Quran offers specific directions.

	Student Analysis
Ye shall do battle with them, or they shall profess Islam... whosoever shall obey God and His Apostle, He shall bring him into the gardens of [Paradise]; but whosoever shall turn back, He will punish him...	What does Mohammad offer to Muslims who follow him?

Document 3

Source: This excerpt from *History of the Arabs*, by Philip K. Hitti, explains the Muslim view on equality. (London: MacMillan & Co. Ltd., 1946).

	Student Analysis
We have witnessed a people [Muslims] to each and every one of whom death is preferable to life, and humility to prominence, and to none of whom this world has the least attraction. Their leader is like one of them: the low cannot be distinguished from the high, nor the master from the slave. And when the prayer time comes, all wash their hands and feet and humbly pray.	How does this writer describe the Muslim people?

Document 4

Source: This description of the Battle of Tours in 732, from *Fifteen Decisive Battles of the World* by Sir Edward Creey (E.P. Dutton & Co., Inc.), provides a perspective on the Muslim fighting style.

	Student Analysis
The Moslems struck their enemies and laid waste to the country and took captives without number... everything gave way to their scimitars [swords]... All the nations of the Franks trembled as that terrible army... attacked Tours... and the fury and cruelty of the Moslems towards the inhabitants of the city were like the fury and cruelty of raging tigers.	How does this writer describe the methods and conquests of the Muslim army at the Battle of Tours?

Document 5

Source: This excerpt suggests that there are options to conversion depending on the religion of the people facing conversion. (From J.J. Saunders, "The Caliph Omar: Arab Imperialist," in *History Today*, March 1961, pp. 180-181.)

Koranic revelation commanded them to "Fight in the cause of God against those who fight you, but do not be the aggressors." The early Muslims thus fought their heathen enemies... war against unbelievers was sanctioned by divine revelation and the example of the Prophet.

But many Arabs were Jews or Christians: What was to be done with them? Mohammad respected the older monotheistic faiths... he called them "People of the Book"... they were not forced into Islam but were allowed to retain their ancestral religion on payment of tribute.

Student Analysis

How were Jews and Christians to be treated?

Document 6

Source: In this excerpt from *The Spirit of Islam*, by a Muslim writer, Syed Ameer Ali (London: Chatto and Windus, 1964), the expansion of Islam is defended and that of Christianity criticized.

Islam never interfered with the dogmas of any moral faith, never persecuted... Islam "grasped the sword" in self defense; Christianity grasped it in order to stifle freedom of thought and liberty of belief. Wherever Christianity prevailed, no other religion could be followed without molestation. The Moslems, on the other hand, required from others a simple guarantee of peace, tribute in return for protection, of perfect equality — on condition of the acceptance of Islam...

Student Analysis

How does this document present the expansion of Islam?

Document 7

Source: Philip K. Hitti, in *History of the Arabs* (MacMillan, 1946), offers another explanation for conquest.

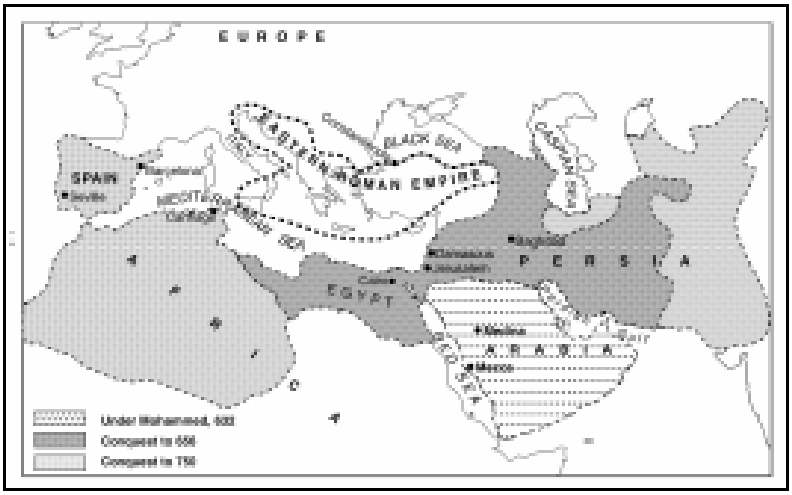
The passion to go to heaven in the next life may have been operative with some, but the desire for the comforts and luxuries of the civilized regions of the Fertile Crescent was just as strong in the case of many... The campaigns seen to have started as raids to provide new outlets for the warring tribes, the objective in most cases being booty [riches] and not the gaining of a permanent foothold... The movement acquired momentum as the warriors passed from victory to victory... the creation of the Arab empire followed inevitably.

Student Analysis

How is the expansion of Islam explained in this passage?

Document 8

Source: The Growth of the Muslim Empire (632-750 CE)



Student Analysis

What does the map reveal about the extensive area in the Muslim empire by 750 CE.

Document 9

Source: Map compiled from various sources

Student Analysis

How was trade instrumental in the expansion of the Muslim empire?

How do medieval trade routes compare to the boundaries of the modern Islamic world?

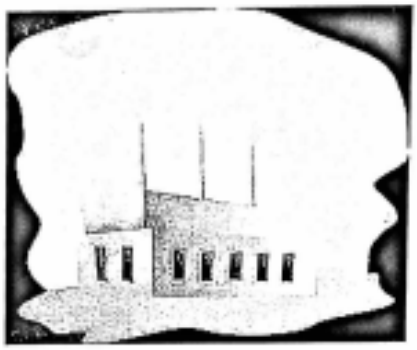
APPENDIX B

SECONDARY SOURCE READING USED IN BRIANA MARKHAM'S CLASSROOM

Industrial Revolution

By Cathy Pearl

Highlight and Annotate the Text!



When people first moved to the United States, most of them were farmers. Most of the things that people used were made by hand. It took a long time to do things or make items that people needed.

In the 1800s, this slowly began to change. This change was called the Industrial Revolution. The Industrial Revolution started in Britain. In the 1700s inventors made new machines. These machines changed the textile industry. This industry made material that people could use for clothes and other items.

For hundreds of years, spinning wheels had been used to make thread. But the spinning wheel was very slow. It could only spin one thread at a time. James Hargreaves invented a machine called the spinning jenny. It could spin many threads at one time. Other inventions helped to make cloth faster. One man built a loom that used water for power. This helped the workers make the material faster. One man could make more cloth in one day than he ever could before.

These new inventions changed how people worked. Before the inventions, many goods were made at home. After the new machines were invented, factories were started. Many people would come to one place and make the goods. These people would earn money for when they worked.

Britain wanted to keep the new inventions a secret. They made a law that said no one could take the plans of the new machines out of the country. This law was very hard to enforce. Samuel Slater was a mechanic in Britain. He heard that the United States would pay a lot of money for the plans to the new machines. In 1789, Slater left Britain. He knew that he would be searched when he left. So he wouldn't be arrested, Slater memorized how the machines in the mill were made.

In 1793, he built a mill in Rhode Island. This was the first successful textile mill in the United States that was powered by water. Slater's wife also helped the mill. She made a new thread that wouldn't break as easily. This stronger thread made the mill run better and faster. The new factory was a big hit. Soon other people were copying his ideas.

Small shops quickly grew into large factories. The industrial revolution changed life in the United States. People still farmed in the United States. Others left farming and started to move to cities. They wanted to get jobs in the new factories. This helped cities to grow and changed the face of the nation.

Working in factories wasn't easy. The hours were very long and the workers weren't always paid a lot. This didn't stop a lot of people from working there anyway. Many immigrants saw these jobs as a chance to make a life in America. In a very short time, the Industrial Revolution would change the United States.

S – State or describe the Industrial Revolution in 1sentence.

E- Elaborate on the Industrial Revolution in your own words. Explain it at greater length in one paragraph.
"In other words...

E –Exemplify the concept by giving concrete examples from the text of the concept.
For example,

I – Illustrate the Industrial Revolution with a metaphor, or analogy. NO PICTURES PLEASE!

APPENDIX C

PRIMARY SOURCE DOCUMENT AND QUESTIONS USED IN BRIANA MARKHAM'S CLASS

Name:
Period:

Date:
World History II

Close Reading of Factory Owner Primary Source
Evidence for Outcome 1.3

Directions: *Carefully read and mark the source, then answer the questions that follow in complete and detailed sentences.*

Robert Southey, *Letters from England* (1807)
In this letter, Robert Southey reported a conversation he had with a factory owner from Manchester, England. Manchester was a city with many textile [cloth] factories.

The factory owner said that nothing could be so good for a town as a factory. He said, "In most parts of England poor children are a burden to their parents and to the community because the community has to support them. But here, by the time they are seven or eight years old, they bring in money."

"These children," I said, "have no time to go to school." "That," the factory owner replied, "is the evil which we have found, but we are solving this now by sending the children to school for an hour after they have done work."

I asked if spending so much time inside injured the children's health. "No," the factory owner replied, "they are as healthy as any children in the world could be."

The factory owner continued, saying, "Factories are good for the population. The parents send their children to work here because they cannot afford to raise them; they know their children will get food, housing, and clothes, and receive their wages if they work in the city."

"But what if these children should be mistreated," I asked. "He replied, "it never can be the interest of the factory owners to let that to happen."

The factory owner was a man of kindly personality, who would not treat anyone cruelly.

1. Who is the speaker? What do you know about this person?

2. What is the occasion? (When was this source created? Where was this source created? What else was going on in the world when this source was created?)

3. Who is the intended audience? (Who is the speaker creating the source for, if anyone?)

4. What was speaker's purpose in creating this document?

5. According to this source, is working in a factory a positive of negative experience for the worker? Support your answer with quoted information from the text.

6. In what ways is this source reliable? (For what reasons do you trust it and find it a useful source for learning about factory work?)

7. In what ways is this source less reliable? (For what reasons do you not trust it and find it a less useful source for learning about factory work?)